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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, MAY 12, 1888.

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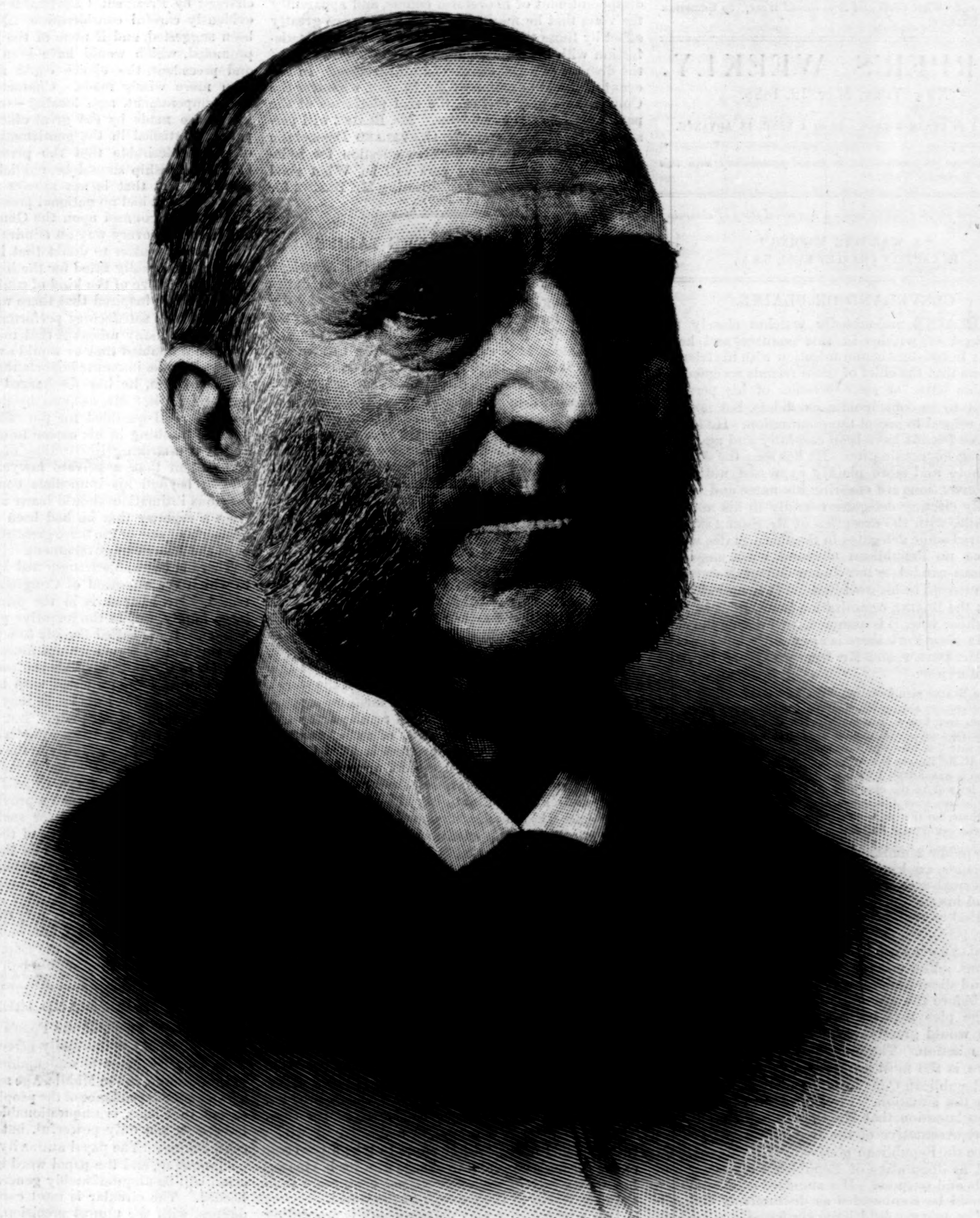
WITH A SUPPLEMENT.



HON. CHAUNCEY MITCHELL DEPEW.—FROM A PHOTOGRAPH BY FREDRICKS.—[SEE PAGE 335.]

"The excellence of Harper's Young People seems to increase constantly. The aim of its editor seems to be to get the greatest variety of matter, and to have everything short, crisp, and interesting."—*The Epoch, New York.*

HARPER'S YOUNG PEOPLE.

An Illustrated Weekly.

The number for May 8th is a more than usually attractive one. Among other things, it contains the first chapter of a short serial story entitled

HELD FOR RANSOM,

By ALICE WELLINGTON ROLLINS,

with a front-page illustration by W. A. Rogers.

In addition to an instalment of her serial story, "The Household of Glen Holly" (with its charming full-page illustration by Miss Alice Barber), Mrs. Lucy C. Lillie *has a short article on "Toy-shops and Toy-Makers."*

Mr. Church's *page of "Funny Things at Barnum's" is accompanied by an article by* Allan Forman.

Charles Henry Webb *has a poem called "My Boy at the Berkeley," and* W. Sergeant Kendall *writes about "Cæsar, and a Few Words on Dog-Training."* C. S. Bush *has a page of comic drawings.*

A SUPPLEMENT

(which is especially intended for parents, teachers, and the older readers) contains two articles—"Gymnasiums for Girls," by Mary E. Allen, *a lady who has made a special study of the physical training of girls; and "What Girls and Boys should Wear," by* Christine Terhune Herrick.

HARPER'S WEEKLY.

New York, May 12, 1888.

TERMS: 10 CENTS A COPY.—$4 00 A YEAR, IN ADVANCE.

An Illustrated Supplement *is issued gratuitously with this number of* Harper's Weekly.

In our next number will be begun a new serial story of absorbing interest, entitled

"A WAR-TIME WOOING,"

By CAPTAIN CHARLES KING, U.S.A.,

CLEVELAND OR BLAINE.

MR. BLAINE undoubtedly watches closely the course of politics in this country, and he is probably in constant communication with his friends. He knows that the chief of those friends accepted his Florentine letter as an expression of his personal wish not to be considered a candidate, but not as a definite refusal to accept the nomination. He knows that those friends have been carefully and zealously promoting his nomination. He has seen the demand for it more and more plainly expressed, until now State Conventions are cheering his name and enthusiastically electing delegates friendly to his nomination, while, with the exception of Mr. Sherman, who has secured some delegates in Southern States which will give no Republican electoral votes, no other Republican candidate but Judge Gresham develops strength except in his own State. It is undoubtedly felt that the Blaine organization is strongest in New York, whose vote, it is assumed, will decide the election. In New York there is apparently but one candidate, Mr. Depew, and Mr. Depew says, as reported in an interview:

> "I am a Blaine man first, last, and all the time. All my Presidential preferences are for Mr. Blaine. I never expect to get the nomination, but firmly believe that Mr. Blaine will.... Mark you, Mr. Blaine never said that he would refuse the nomination; he merely said that his name would not be presented to the Convention. If Mr. Blaine is drafted for service, so to speak, if his nomination is unanimous, I have no doubt that he will accept it, and that he will be the candidate of the Republican party this fall.... What we want is a man strong enough to carry not only his own State, but the entire country, and I think Mr. Blaine is the man who can do this, and that is why I favor his nomination."

These public remarks of his especial and representative friends are known to Mr. Blaine. It is now the universal assumption that he is to be the candidate, and his silent acquiescence justifies the assumption. Had he really meant to refuse, he would hardly have permitted the canvass to proceed, unless he intended to embarrass his party and make his friends ridiculous. The talk about his health confirms this view, and should he issue a positive and peremptory refusal before the assembly of the Convention, even upon the plea that he had never meant anything else, he would greatly perplex and demoralize Republican action. The nomination of Mr. Blaine, therefore, is the most probable and important result of the Republican Convention, and it would at once simplify the situation. First of all, it would be the clear proclamation that Mr. Blaine is the gladly accepted representative of the Republican party. He would be the Republican platform. His career would be cited as illustrative of Republican character and principle and purpose. His standard of official conduct would be commended as distinctively Republican. The party would have confessedly passed on from Lincoln and Sumner and Seward to Blaine. But what would be the result? If the moral enthusiasm of the day of its youth and vigor could not be aroused in 1884 for the Blaine candidacy, and if the defensive campaign of that year—defensive not so much against public policy as official conduct—should be renewed this year, upon what grounds do reasonable Republicans rest their expectations of success? Is it that the lapse of time has changed the facts or the interpretation of them? or that the administration of Mr. Cleveland has been so disappointing that a Blaine administration would be a preferable alternative?

Neither of these positions can be maintained. There has been no change of opinion in regard to the points upon which Mr. Blaine was defeated in 1884, while it is undeniable that upon the whole, and with the fullest admission of the failure in civil service reform, and conceding a loss of votes for that reason, Mr. Cleveland is a very much stronger candidate than he was before. His message has not divided his party. Mr. Randall may oppose the Mills bill, but he will support Mr. Cleveland. The message was shrewd enough to baffle the cry of free-trade before it was raised, and the cry will not alarm the country in the campaign. The message has merely shown that the true method of encouraging American labor and of securing equitable taxation is not to be peremptorily declared by those who are interested in high protection. It would be very difficult for an honest Republican to show in what way Mr. Cleveland is a weaker candidate in 1888 than in 1884, except in the disappointment of his reform course, and apparently the votes that he may lose for that cause are greatly offset by those that he will gain by the general satisfaction with his conduct and by the disappearance of the distrust of a Democratic administration. In the event of the nomination of Mr. Blaine, whatever the Conventions may declare, the real platforms of the parties will be the candidates. Mr. Blaine will personify Republican and Mr. Cleveland Democratic administration, and the decisive question for independent and intelligent voters will be, What good cause is likely to gain by substituting Mr. Blaine for Mr. Cleveland?

THE FARMER AND THE TARIFF.

A correspondent, who asks why the American farmer is not as much protected by certain duties upon farming products as the manufacturer by duties upon foreign manufactures, should read the speech of Mr. Ford, of Michigan, in the pending tariff debate. It is addressed especially to farmers, and that it states truths which the Northwest, the great farming region of the country, already apprehends, is shown by the tone of the Republican party in that part of the country. The dogma of Eastern Republicans, that the present tariff is a sacred instrument embodying the divine principle of high special protection for the sake of high special protection, and which for that reason must not be touched, or only by the hands of hierophants for the purpose of securing still greater stringency, is openly rejected by Western Republicans. The Northwest is a region of great farms. It is politically Republican. But some of the chief Republican journals and Republican Representatives approve the general view of the President's message.

As we said in the article which occasions the letter of our correspondent, the price of the American farm product is fixed in the London market, where, if it be wheat, it is brought into direct competition with wheat raised by the cheapest labor in the world, which is paid six cents a day. No tariff on agricultural productions can prevent this result; and why? Because we export 30 per cent. of such products, and the price of the whole product is fixed by that surplus. Thus the protective tariff upon farm products does not help the farmer, while the tariff upon manufactures forces him to pay 47 per cent. more for the articles which he buys. He is told that this difficulty is offset by the advantage of a home market. What is his home market? This country consumes 70 per cent. of its farm products, and exports 30 per cent. of them. But the farmers are half of the population, and they therefore consume one-half of the 70 per cent. product, or 35 per cent. The people engaged in manufactures, mining, and mechanics are about one-fifth of the population. Their consumption, therefore, is about one-fifth of the 70 per cent., or 14 per cent. of the whole. But of these people so engaged only about one-third are benefited by the high tariff. Mr. Russell, of Massachusetts, an admirable authority, says that not one in ten of the industries of that State is protected by the tariff, and the protected pay the lowest wages. This protected part would consume one-third of the 14 per cent., or a little less than 5 per cent., of the farmer's product, while the foreign customer consumes 30 per cent. The home market, therefore, is a market in which the protected manufacturer offers to take 5 per cent. of the farmer's crop, and to charge him for his manufactured goods in exchange 47 per cent. more than they are worth in the markets of the world.

It is a very instructive debate which is proceeding in Congress, and as the force and substance of it are found in a few speeches, it is readily followed and comprehended. Farmers especially would find it quite worth their while to read the leading speeches, and especially to ponder the replies which are made to precisely such questions as our correspondent raises, and which can be treated in a speech with much greater fulness of detail than is possible in a weekly journal. The advocates of high protection lay the utmost stress upon the fact that farmers are a constituent part of the protected class because of the duties upon certain agricultural products, and even if such duties were not levied, the farmers are told that they have in the home market the deepest interest and the strongest reason for favoring high protection. This is a plausible assertion which imposes only upon the ill-informed. The tariff question has been usually regarded as so obscure that the discussion has been largely carried on hitherto by broad allegations which could be successfully questioned only by copious detailed knowledge. The present debate in the House is interesting from its array of facts, and the tariff reformers are making a case which cannot be swept away by a cry of pauperizing labor, but which must be met by facts as accurately stated and conclusions as logically drawn.

THE NEW CHIEF-JUSTICE.

The appointment of the Chief-Justice of the United States is one of the most important duties that are devolved upon the President, and it has been discharged by President Cleveland with prompt but evidently careful consideration. Many names had been suggested, and if none of the judges was to be promoted, which would have been a better course and precedent, the choice could not perhaps have been more wisely made. Character, ability, learning, temperament, age, locality—all the demands which are made by the great office have been apparently satisfied in the gentleman selected. It is, of course, desirable that the person called to the Chief-Justiceship should be publicly and favorably known. But that is not always possible. Chief-Justice Waite had no national prominence, although he served as counsel upon the Geneva Commission. Yet he was in every way an admirable selection, and there is no reason to doubt that his successor will prove to be equally fitted for the high responsibility.

It is indicative of the kind of confidence which the President has inspired that there was a general conviction of his satisfactory performance of this duty. There were many mistakes that might be made, but it was not doubted that he would avoid them. Comprehending the immense importance of the trust committed to him, he has discharged it in a wise and patriotic spirit. Mr. Fuller, by the universal testimony, is well qualified for the office. There is apparently nothing in his career to explain or defend, and it is a striking illustration of the simplicity of our system that a private lawyer, practically unknown beyond his immediate community, without previous intimation, should learn at the dinner-table from a reporter that he had been nominated to the headship of one of the three great co-ordinate branches of the American government.

There is one subject suggested by the nomination to which the attention of Congress may well be directed. Mr. Fuller is in the prime of life, with a large family, and in the lucrative practice of his profession. He is called for life to a position of which the emolument is perhaps not more than a third or a quarter of the amount of his professional income, but which must be maintained with becoming dignity. In the case of Mr. Fuller it may be that his independent income is adequate. But acceptance of the honor often involves the want of a suitable provision for the Chief-Justice's family in the event of his death. This is not a situation which the country should tolerate. The salary of the Chief-Justice should be large enough to assure such a provision. The country should not be exposed for such a reason to the chance of losing the services of those who are especially qualified for the Supreme Bench. It is not a proposition which requires argument, and the remark that we have done very well by leaving the matter to chance and a possible pension is not a reply. The Presidency, with a salary of fifty thousand dollars, is not sought for the money, and there need be no fear of a mercenary strife for the Supreme Bench if its salaries were what they should be.

THE POPE AND IRELAND.

The precise effect of the Pope's circular upon the Irish movement is not easily perceptible, but that it must be very great is undeniable. No country is more Catholic, in the Middle-Age sense, than Ireland. The popular dependence of the people upon the priests, except in Ulster, is unquestionable, and the priests have been not only powerful, but generally beneficent, leaders. The papal authority in the country is commanding, and the papal word in the present situation will be unquestionably generally respected and heeded. The circular is most carefully drawn. It defines, with the utmost precision, the sole question upon which the Pope speaks: "In contests between letters and holders of lands or farms in Ireland, is it lawful to have recourse to those means known as the plan of campaign and boycotting?" By lawful is meant whether such means are, in the view of the Church, sinful, and the Pope, at the head of the College of the Holy Office, declares that they are. A rent fixed by mutual consent, he says, cannot, without violation of contract, be reduced by the arbitrary will of one only of the parties, and more especially because courts exist for the purpose of settling whether, in particular cases, there are good reasons for such reduction. Moreover, it cannot be lawful that rent belonging to the landlord should be extorted from the tenant and deposited with unknown persons without reference to the landlord; and it is opposed to natural justice and Christian charity that those who are willing to pay a certain rent or to occupy vacant farms should be ruthlessly persecuted and proscribed.

These are very plain and indisputable propositions. They affirm clearly the right of honest contract, and they apply very closely to the conduct of strikers in this country in their treatment of what they call scabs. The principle is of the very essence of liberty and of orderly society. The assumption of any man or group of men to determine what contracts of labor shall be made by other equally free men is, of course, intolerable in any community of equal rights. But the Pope is very careful to express no opinion upon the political question, although it is obvious that his circular must affect it. The theory of many enlightened students of the Irish situation is that the chief interest of Irish tenants in home rule lies in the conviction that it would give them land upon easier terms, and that the National League hopes, by the confusion produced by withholding rents, to persuade Parliament to seek order in Ireland by granting home rule. But the Papal condemnation of the methods of the National League is necessarily a blow at its prestige which must react upon the political situation. For if the League, which is the leadership of the Irish political agitation, is condemned by the Pope for adopting and enforcing wrongful measures, its authority with good Catholics must be seriously shaken.

But this fact does not touch the merits of the difference between the Irish party and the English Ministry. Irishmen may be pursuing a mistaken course toward a commendable end. Upon a general survey of the whole situation it may seem to be best for the whole empire, as Mr. Gladstone contends, that there should be a local legislature in Ireland. This is the substantive Irish question. This is the separation which is alleged by the Tories against Mr. Gladstone, and this is the point upon which the Pope carefully expresses no opinion. He exhorts the bishops to see that their people observe Christian charity and the bounds of justice in seeking relief from the evils which afflict them, but he does not deny that there are evils from which rightfully they may seek relief. The circular is a skilful document, but as it condemns certain courses of the League, it really helps the position of the English Government, and it must be exceedingly unwelcome to the Nationalist leaders. Its weight may be inferred negatively from the exultation with which an approval of the League and its methods would have been received. Already some of the leaders declare that Ireland will not take its politics from Rome. But it will not be easy to detach the Irish priesthood and people from their traditional reverence for papal leadership.

PRESIDENTS AND PARTIES.

The statement that General Grant yielded to the pressure of the Republican party in abandoning reform in the civil service is unquestionably true. But the statement is not made either to disparage him or to exculpate President Cleveland. It is used as an illustration of the fact that neither party, as such, is a reform party, and that both a Republican and a Democratic President have been overborne by the same kind of party pressure for spoils. The difference between the two Presidents is that General Grant, while holding that reform was essentially an executive act, and that all which Mr. Jenckes's amendment empowered him to do he already had the power to do, yet regarded the passage of the law and the grant of an appropriation as the formal approval of reform by Congress. This he distinctly stated. He said in his message to Congress transmitting the rules of the first Commission, "If left to me, without further Congressional action, the rules .... will be faithfully executed"; and he asked "for all the strength which Congress can give me to enable me to carry out the reform in the civil service recommended by the Commissioners." He made it apparent from the first that his persistence depended upon the support of Congress.

But the Republican leaders, with the exception of Senator Edmunds, had no faith in reform, and Congress, while not refusing an appropriation, gave no moral support to it, and the abuses in the service flourished more vigorously than ever. This was so evident that General Grant at last said, in the message of 1874, "If Congress adjourns without positive legislation on civil service reform, I will regard such action as a disapproval of the system, and will abandon it." Congress omitted the legislation, and reform was practically abandoned. It was, as we have said, a surrender, but it was the surrender of a champion who had honestly mistaken both the nature and the strength of the adversary and his own power of endurance. In justice to President Cleveland it ought to be said that his surrender no more imports dishonesty than that of Grant. In his letter of acceptance Mr. Cleveland said that

> "the selection and retention of subordinates in government employment should depend upon their ascertained fitness and the value of their work, and they should be neither expected nor allowed to do questionable party service."

In his letter to the National League he said that the removal of officers not included within the letter of the reform statutes

> "should not be made, for the terms for which they are appointed, solely on partisan grounds and for the purpose of putting in their places those who are in political accord with the appointing power."

Unlike General Grant, Mr. Cleveland made no allusion to conditions, such as the support of Congress, and when he yielded to the adverse pressure he had left open no similar line of excuse. But it certainly does not follow that his convictions were less strong or his purpose more sinister than those of Grant. They both yielded to save, as they believed, their party. General Grant was told that he held the executive power in trust for a party, and that he had no right, in order to further a policy of his own and not of his party, to risk the party harmony and ascendency. President Grant yielded, and President Cleveland has yielded. But it is impossible to say that one was wholly free from just censure and that the other is a hypocritical schemer. When the chairman of President Grant's first Commission resigned because he saw that substantially the reform had been abandoned, he said that he trusted still to support the Grant administration. He was not willing that his course should be determined solely by an issue which had been rejected by the administration party, and was not favored by any other. So, in the contest of this year, the voters who regard that issue as primary will see that neither party is, in their sense, a reform party, and their action must be determined, as so often happens in practical politics, by their judgment of the average of probable general advantage.

MR. SCHURZ IN GERMANY.

The banquet to Mr. Schurz in Berlin was an honorable tribute to a distinguished American citizen of German birth, who, as true now as ever to the republican principles which he brought to his chosen country, is perfectly just to the greatness and to the modern progress of his native land. His speech upon the late German Emperor showed the generous catholicity of his political view, as his speeches always show a wise and comprehensive grasp of great principles, and try men and parties by their fidelity to such principles.

Mr. Schurz's career in this country has illustrated both the power and the penalty of political independence. There is no man who has been more bitterly denounced by party spirit. But there are few men in either of the great parties who rival him in sound political thinking, or who exercise so deep and strong an influence upon the political action of intelligent and patriotic young Americans. Mr. Schurz is peculiarly a public man, however his resolute independence may interfere with party relations, and that a man thrown out of such relations, yet with unabated interest in public affairs, still maintains his moral ascendency in politics, is one of the happy signs of the times.

Perhaps the best illustration of Mr. Schurz's political perception and sense of justice, as well as of his signal ability, is his biography of Henry Clay, which seems to us to be the best of our political biographies, as it is by far the best general and brief manual of American politics for the first half of this century. Its breadth, candor, acuteness, and intelligence are delightful, and the work, like all such works when well done, is a public service. There is probably many an old Henry Clay Whig, now become a Republican, who heartily dislikes Mr. Schurz, but who would find in his story of Clay a more sympathetic and complete comprehension of him than has yet been shown.

THE NEWBURGH PARK.

The people of Newburgh upon the Hudson River have wisely taxed themselves for a public park, and as we stated some time since, they have been deliberating upon a proper name for it. Many names have been suggested, and all for reasons of greater or less weight. In such cases there are two classes of names to be considered, one generally descriptive, such as Fairview, Overlook, Hudson, Newburgh, Prospect, Central, for all of which good arguments may be urged; and the other, names personally commemorative, as of special benefactors, or of those peculiarly interested in the enterprise, or of distinguished local citizens.

It is, of course, a distinctively local question, and suggestions from the outside are in danger of seeming a little impertinent. But sometimes the very doubt and difference of local opinion may make an outside suggestion of possible service. At least it may be accepted as a well-meant contribution to a friendly discussion. It happens that Newburgh was the home of the American who first interested public opinion in this country in parks and in an artistic treatment of the landscape, and whose taste and labors may be said to have begun the practical movement in that delightful art which has so greatly beautified the country. No name has acquired the distinction as an authority upon the subject so great and so general as that of the pioneer, Mr. Downing.

It seems, therefore, that it would be a natural and beautiful tribute to the memory of its distinguished son whose fame is especially identified with all such rural works throughout the country, if the city of Newburgh should give to its park the name of Downing. Among other local names there may be great difficulty in deciding upon the greater claim, but upon the grounds for which his name would be selected there could be no difference of opinion. Time flies fast, and if there be younger citizens of Newburgh who might ask who was Downing, the answer suggested by the name of the park would show them that their city was richer in noted citizens than they knew. Monuments of worthy men cherish that just local pride which is the strength and ornament of every community, and tend to produce the service and the character which they commemorate. There could not be anywhere in the country a more singularly appropriate memorial than a Downing Park in Newburgh.

A DISGRACEFUL SCENE.

The recent squabble in the Senate between Mr. Ingalls, of Kansas, and Mr. Voorhees, of Indiana, is a national disgrace. The Senate of the United States, we have been accustomed to think and to say, is the most dignified legislative body in the world. But its President during a personal altercation says to a fellow-member, "If this were a police court, the Senator from Indiana would be sent to the rock pile for being drunk and disorderly;" and the Senator from Indiana replies that the President of the Senate is "a great liar and a dirty dog." Yet we profess great indignation when Matthew Arnold suggests that our civilization is in some respects open to criticism.

In the tremendous days of the antislavery debate, when the strongest passions of men and sections were aroused to fury, bitterness of epithet and even personal assaults were intelligible and not surprising. But the mere blackguardism of a bar-room bandied without cause or pretence of justification upon the floor of the Senate between its President and a member, and apparently without rebuke from any Senator, is a spectacle of which every honorable American is ashamed. The whole discussion was senseless. Mr. Ingalls had deliberately said, in order to inflame partisan passion, that General Hancock and other Union generals were "allies of the Confederacy." Mr. Voorhees, after a long delay, retorted, ridiculing Mr. Ingalls's conduct during the war; and to this retort Mr. Ingalls replied, drawing out Mr. Voorhees again, the altercation culminating in the scene which has been described.

There was no point whatever to the first speech of Mr. Ingalls but the deliberate incitement of angry feeling. It was a performance wholly unworthy of an American Senator, and upon which the country had expressed its opinion very plainly. Mr. Voorhees very foolishly reopened the subject. As the *Times* pertinently inquires, is this the kind of campaign which any sensible man thinks desirable for the country?

PERSONAL.

Mr. William Russell, whose sketch entitled "Caught in the Act" is found in the present number of Harper's Weekly, is well known in Montana Territory as "Russ," and is an actual cow-boy, having ridden last year with a cattle outfit, in company with a correspondent of Harper's Weekly. Mr. Russell may be said to be self-taught. Born in St. Louis, he came to Montana in 1880, and at once took to cow-boy life. He has never received any instruction, and never in his life been inside of an art gallery. What he knows about the use of oil-colors is entirely self-taught. Living among ranchmen, coming across Indians, he seems to have been strongly impressed by these surroundings. As Mr. Russell is yet quite a young man, there may be a remarkable future for him as a delineator of life in the West. So far, the artist "punches cows" in the summer, and draws and paints at Helena, Montana, during the winter.

—The Rev. Kenneth Mackenzie, Jun., Assistant Rector of the Church of the Holy Trinity, Madison Avenue and Forty-second Street, has accepted a call to St. Thomas Church, New Windsor, New York. He will assume the duties of his rectorate June 1.

—Mr. Daly's company of American actors have scored a new hit in London.

—Friends of the new Chief-Justice Fuller predict that he will challenge the traditions of the Supreme Court, and retain the wavy gray mustache that through many years has been his pride. Mr. Fuller gives up a law practice in Chicago worth three times as much as the salary of the Chief-Justiceship.

—Master Workman Powderly has written a letter to the Order of Knights of Labor declaring that under no circumstances would he consent to go upon a labor ticket as a candidate for President of the United States. He wouldn't accept any political office, he says.

—England has an entertaining bit of gossip to the effect that Lord Salisbury is to please British Catholics by having Cardinal Manning made a peer.

—Senator Edmunds is the proud possessor of a bull-dog whose pedigree is traced back to somewhere near the flood, but there is scarcely a cur in Washington of half its weight that hasn't whipped it.

—Lieutenant-Governor Jones made a speech at a Grand Army Post in Albany the other night, in which he vigorously criticised the Philadelphia veterans who have elected the Confederate General Joseph E. Johnston to honorary membership. This was "paying court" to rebels, avowed Politician Jones.

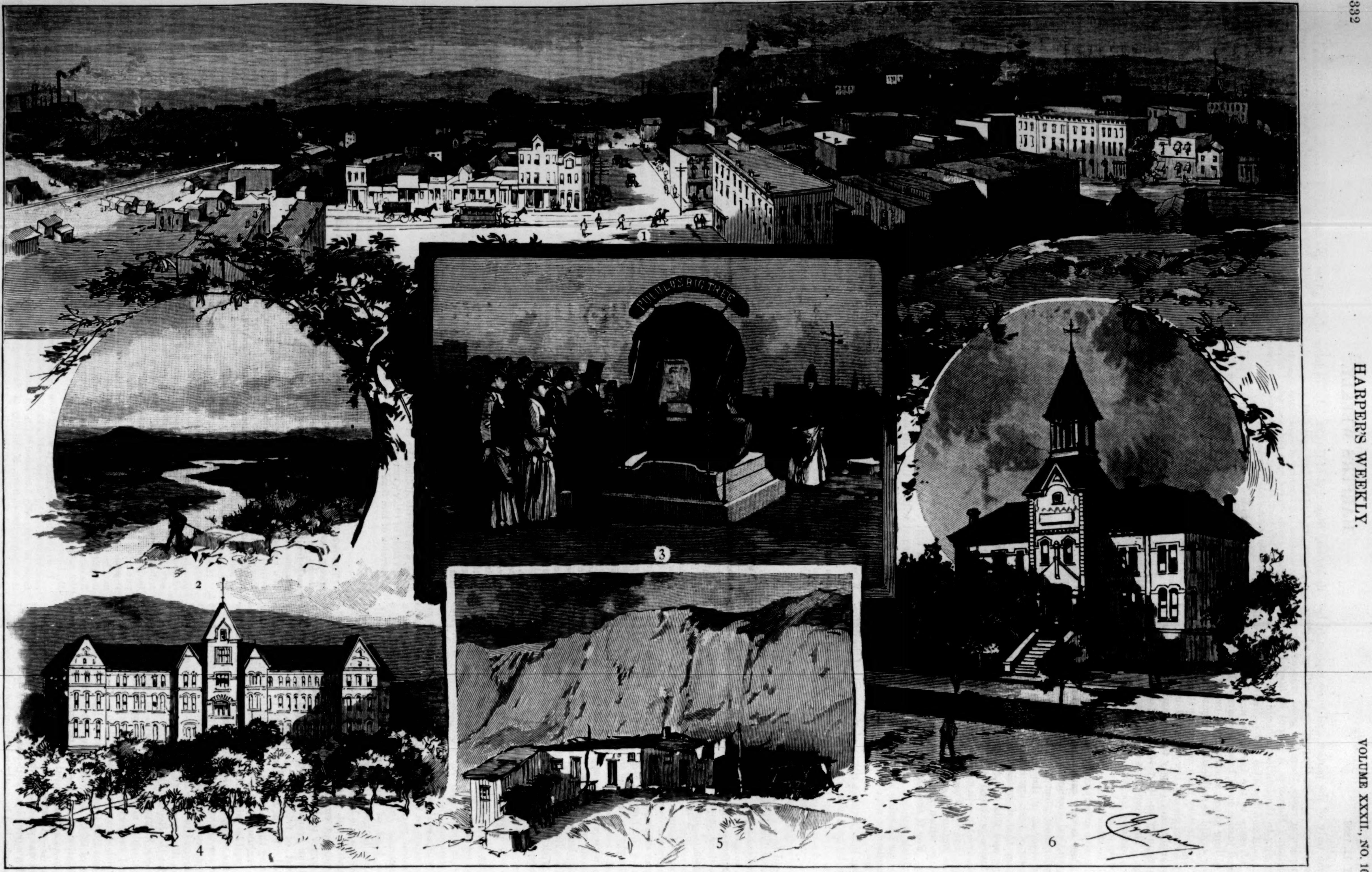
—The artists of the American Water-color Society made a new departure in public dinners the other day. They adorned the dining hall of the Hotel Brunswick with a richness and profusion of ornament fitted to recall the splendor and the state of the feasts of royalty of three centuries ago. Nothing was lacking save a more picturesque costume on the part of the diners to have made a composition worthy of the brush of a great artist.

—Since the newspapers began to nominate Chauncey Depew for President, that popular man's mail has doubled a good many times over. He is averaging from 300 to 400 letters a day from patriots who wish him well, and hope they may not be forgotten when he gets to Washington.

—Mr. Jay Gould has just experienced the unusual sensation of having a court and jury file a verdict against him. Mr. Gould's yacht, the *Atalanta*, did forty dollars' worth of damage to a canal-boat, and the millionaire has lost the lawsuit, which he tried to defend against the claims of the canal-boat man.

—Germany's Crown-Prince William has a crippled arm which detracts from his military bearing, and many sensational tales have been told to explain it; but in the average German mind there is a deep-rooted belief that it came from the awkward attentions of an English doctor who had charge of the Prince in his infancy. English doctors just now are the especial objects of German distrust and prejudice.

—Mr. Charles S. Smith has just been re-elected to the Presidency of the New York Chamber of Commerce. Mr. Smith is a metropolitan merchant who in all things is inspired by that broad public spirit which fits him pre-eminently for this post of trust and honor.


1
PUEBLO'S BIG TREE
3
2
4
5
6
Graham

PUEBLO, COLORADO.—Drawn by Charles Graham from Sketches by Lenore Hasslock.—[See Page 334.]

1. General View of Pueblo. 2. The Arkansas River. 3. Pueblo's big Tree. 4. The Insane Asylum. 5. Mexican Adobe Huts. 6. Central High-School.

A Strange Manuscript Found in a Copper Cylinder.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE DAY OF SACRIFICE.

AT last the time came.

It was the end of the dark season. Then, as the sun rises for its permanent course around the heavens, when the long day of six months begins, all in the land of the Kosekin is sorrow, and the last of the loved darkness is mourned over amid the most solemn ceremonies, and celebrated with the most imposing sacrifices. Then the most honored in all the land are publicly presented with the blessing of death, and allowed to depart this hated life, and go to the realms of that eternal darkness which they love so well. It is the greatest of sacrifices, and is followed by the greatest of feasts. Thus the busy season—the loved season of darkness—ends, and the long, hateful season of light begins, when the Kosekin lurk in caverns, and live in this way in the presence of what may be called artificial darkness.

It was for us—for me and for Almah—the day of doom. Since the ceremony of separation I had not seen her; but my heart had been always with her. I did not even know whether she was alive or not, but believed that she must be; for I thought that if she had died I should have heard of it, as the Kosekin would have rejoiced greatly over such an event. For every death is to them an occasion of joy, and the death of one so distinguished and so beloved as Almah would have given rise to nothing less than a national festival.

Of time I had but a poor reckoning; but, from the way in which the paupers kept account of their *joms*, I judged that about three months had elapsed since the ceremony of separation.

The paupers were now all joyous with a hideous joy. The Chief Pauper was more abhorrent than ever. He had the blood-thirst strong upon him. He was on that *jom* to perform his horrible office of *Sar Tabakin*, and as he accosted me he smiled the smile of a demon, and congratulated me on my coming escape from life. To this I had no word of answer to make; but my hands held my rifle and pistol, and these I clutched with a firmer grasp as my last hour approached.

The time of departure at length arrived. Soldiers of the Kosekin came, following the paupers, who went first, while the guards came after me. Thus we all emerged into the open air. There the broad terrace already mentioned spread out before my eyes, filled with thousands upon thousands of human beings. It seemed as though the entire population of the city was there, and so densely packed was this great crowd that it was only with great difficulty that a way was laid open for our passage.

Above was the sky, where the stars were twinkling faintly. There was no longer the light of the aurora australis; the constellations glimmered but dimly, the moon was shining with but a feeble ray; for there far away over the icy crests of the lofty mountains I saw a long line of splendid effulgence, all golden and red—the light of the new dawn—the dawn of that long day which was now approaching. The sight of that dawning light gave me new life. It was like a sight of home—the blessed dawn, the sunlight of a bright day, the glorious daybreak lost for so long a time, but now at last returning. I feasted my eyes on the spectacle, I burst into tears of joy, and I felt as though I could gaze at it forever. But the sun as it travelled was rapidly coming into view; soon the dazzling glory of its rim would appear above the mountain crest, and the season of darkness would end. There was no time to wait, and the guards hurried me on.

There in the midst of the square rose the pyramid. It was fully a hundred feet in height, with a broad flat top. At the base I saw a great crowd of paupers. Through these we passed, and as we did so a horrible death-chant arose. We now went up the steps and reached the top. It was about sixty feet square, and upon it there was a quadrangle of stones set about three feet apart, about sixty in number, while in the midst was a larger stone. All of these were evidently intended for sacrificial purposes.

Scarcely had I reached the top when I saw a procession ascend from the other side. First came some paupers, then some hags, and then, followed by other hags, I saw Almah. I was transfixed at the sight. A thrill passed through every nerve, and a wild impulse came to me to burst through the crowd, join her, and battle with them all for her life. But the crowd was too dense. I could only stand and look at her, and mark the paleness of her face and her mute despair. She saw me, waved her hand sadly, and gave a mournful smile. There we stood separated by the crowd, with our eyes fastened on each other, and all our hearts filled with one deep, intense yearning to fly to one another's side.

And now there came up from below, louder and deeper, the awful death-chant. Time was pressing. The preparations were made. The Chief Pauper took his station by the central stone, and in his right hand he held a long, keen knife. Toward this stone I was led. The Chief Pauper then looked with his blear and blinking eyes to where the dawn was glowing over the mountain crest, and every moment increasing in brightness; and then, after a brief survey, he turned and whetted his knife on the sacrificial stone. After this he turned to me with his evil face, with the glare of a horrid death-hunger in his ravenous eyes, and pointed to the stone.

I stood without motion.

He repeated the gesture and said, "Lie down here."

"I will not," said I.

"But it is on this stone," said he, "that you are to get the blessing of death."

"I'll die first!" said I, fiercely, and I raised my rifle.

The Chief Pauper was puzzled at this. The others looked on quietly, thinking it probably a debate about some punctilio. Suddenly he seemed struck with an idea.

"Yes, yes," said he. "The woman first. It is better so."

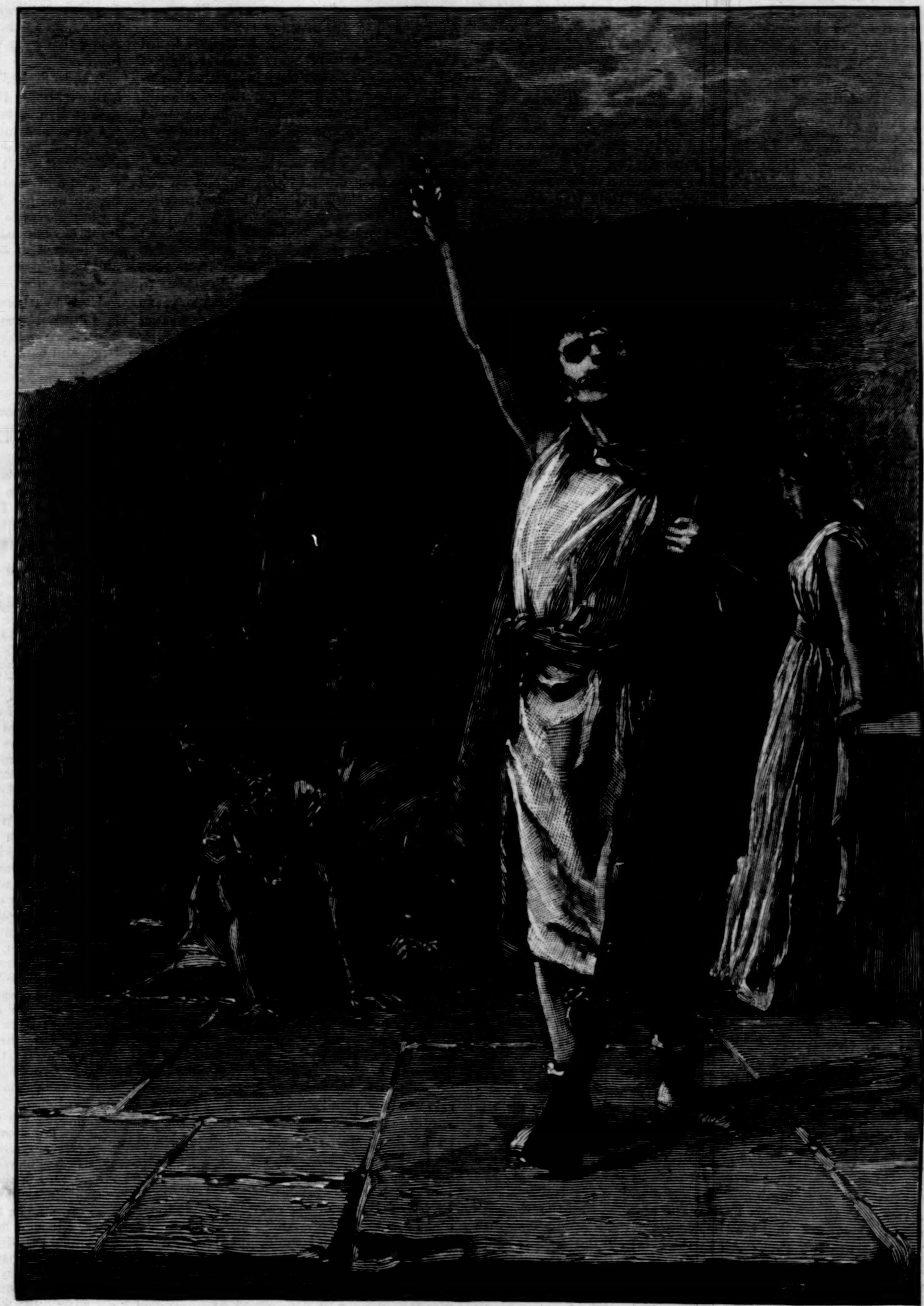
Saying this he walked toward Almah, and said something to the hags.

At this the chief of them—namely, the nightmare hag—led Almah to the nearest stone, and motioned to her to lie down. Almah prepared to obey, but paused a moment to throw at me one last glance and wave her hand as a last farewell. Then without a word she laid herself down upon the stone. At this a thrill of fury rushed through all my being, rousing me from my stupor, impelling me to action, filling my brain with madness. The nightmare hag had already raised her long keen knife in the air. Another moment and the blow would have fallen. But my rifle was at my shoulder; my aim was deadly. The report rang out like thunder. A wild, piercing yell followed, and when the smoke cleared away the nightmare hag lay dead at the foot of the altar. I was already there, having burst through the astonished crowd, and Almah was in my arms; and holding her thus for a moment, I put myself in front of her and stood at bay, with my only thought that of defending her to the last and selling my life as dearly as possible.

The result was amazing.

After the report there was for some moments a deep silence, which was followed by a wild, abrupt outcry from half a million people—the roar of indistinguishable words bursting forth from the lips of all that throng, whose accumulated volume arose in one vast thunder-clap of sound, pealing forth, echoing along the terraced streets, and rolling on far away in endless reverberations. It was like the roar of mighty cataracts, like the sound of many waters; and at the voice of that vast multitude I shrank back for a moment. As I did so I looked down, and beheld a scene as appalling as the sound that had overawed me. In all that countless throng of human beings there was not one who was not in motion; and all were pressing forward toward the pyramid as to a common centre. On every side there was a multitudinous sea of upturned faces, extending as far as the eye could reach. All were in violent agitation, as though all were possessed by one common impulse which forced them toward me. At such a sight I thought of nothing else than that I was the object of their wrath, and that they were all with one common fury rushing toward me to wreak vengeance upon me and upon Almah for the slaughter of the nightmare hag.

All this was the work of but a few moments. And now as I stood there holding Almah—appalled, despairing, yet resolute and calm—I became aware of a more imminent danger. On the top of the pyramid, at the report of the rifle, all had fallen down flat on their faces, and it was over them that I had rushed to Almah's side. But these now began to rise, and the hags took up the corpse of the dead, and the paupers swarmed around with cries of "*Mut! mut!*" (dead! dead!) and exclamations of wonder. Then they all turned their foul and bleary eyes toward me, and stood as if transfixed with astonishment. At length there burst forth from the crowd one who sought to get at me. It was the Chief Pauper. He still held in his hand the long knife of sacrifice. He said not a word, but rushed straight at me, and as he came I saw murder in his look. I did not wait



"I AM ATAM-OR, THE MAN OF LIGHT. I COME FROM THE LAND OF LIGHT."

for him, but raising my rifle, discharged the second barrel full in his face. He fell down a shattered, blackened heap, dead.

As the second report thundered out it drowned all other sounds, and was again followed by an awful silence. I looked around. Those on the pyramid—paupers and hags—had again flung themselves on their faces. On the square below the whole multitude were on their knees, with their heads bowed down low. The silence was more oppressive than before; it was appalling—it was tremendous! It seemed like the dread silence that precedes the more awful outburst of the hurricane when the storm is gathering up all its strength to burst with accumulated fury upon its doomed victim.

But there was no time to be lost in staring, and that interval was occupied by me in hastily reloading my rifle. It was my last resource now; and if it availed not for defence, it might at least serve to be used against ourselves. With this thought I handed the pistol to Almah, and hurriedly whispered to her that if I were killed, she could use it against herself. She took it in silence, but I read in her face her invincible resolve.

The storm at last burst. The immense multitude rose to their feet, and with one common impulse came pressing on from every side toward the pyramid, apparently filled with the one universal desire of reaching me—a desire which was now all the more intense and vehement from these interruptions which had taken place. Why they had fallen on their knees, why the paupers on the pyramid were still prostrate, I could not tell; but I saw now the swarming multitude, and I felt that they were rolling in on every side—merciless, blood-thirsty, implacable—to tear me to pieces. Yet time passed and they did not reach me, for an obstacle was interposed. The pyramid had smooth sides. The stairways that led up to the summit were narrow, and did not admit of more than two at a time; yet, had the Kosekin been like other people, the summit of the pyramid would soon have been swarming with them; but as they were Kosekin, none came up to the top; for at the base of the pyramid, at the bottom of the steps, I saw a strange and incredible struggle. It was not, as with us, who should go up first, but who should go up last; each tried to make his neighbor go before him. All were eager to go, but the Kosekin self-denial, self-sacrifice, and love for the good of others made each one intensely desirous to make others go up. This resulted in a furious struggle, in which, as fast as any one would be pushed up the steps a little way, he would jump down again and turn his efforts toward putting up others; and thus all the energies of the people were worn out in useless and unavailing efforts—in a struggle to which, from the very nature of the case, there could be no end.

Now those on the pyramid began to rise, and soon all were on their feet. Cries burst forth from them. All were looking at us, but with nothing like hostility; it was rather like reverence and adoration, and these feelings were expressed unmistakably in their cries, among which I could plainly distinguish such words as these: *"Ap Ram!" "Mosel anan wacosek!" "Sopet Mut!"* (The Father of Thunder! Ruler of Cloud and Darkness! Judge of Death!) These cries passed to those below. The struggle ceased. All stood and joined in the cry, which was taken up by those nearest, and soon passed among all those myriads, to be repeated with thunder echoes far and wide.

At this it suddenly became plain to me that the danger of death had passed away; that these people no longer regarded me as a victim, but rather as some mighty being—some superior, perhaps supernatural power, who was to be almost worshipped. Hence these prostrations, these words, these cries, these looks. All these told me that the bitterness of death had passed away. At this discovery there was, for a moment, a feeling of aversion and horror within me at filling such a position; that I, a weak mortal, should dare to receive adoration like this; and I recoiled at the thought: yet this feeling soon passed; for life was at stake—not my own merely, but that of Almah; and I was ready now to go through anything if only I might save her: so, instead of shrinking from this new part, I eagerly seized upon it, and at once determined to take advantage of the popular superstition to the utmost.

Far away over the crests of the mountains I saw the golden edge of the sun's disc, and the light flowed therefrom in broad effulgence, throwing out long rays of glory in a luminous flood over all the land. I pointed to the glorious orb, and cried to the paupers, and to all who were nearest, in a loud voice:

"I am Atam-or, the Man of Light! I come from the land of light! I am the Father of Thunder, of Cloud and Darkness; the Judge of Death!"

At this the paupers all fell prostrate, and cried out to me to give them the blessing of death.

I made no answer, but leading Almah to the edge of the pyramid, told her to fire the pistol. A million eyes were fixed on us. She held up the pistol and fired. Immediately after, I fired both barrels of the rifle; and as the reports rang out and the smoke cleared away, I heard a mighty murmur, and once more beheld all prostrate. Upon this I hurriedly loaded again, and waited for further revelations. All the time I could not help wondering at the effect produced by the rifle now, in comparison with the indifference with which it had been regarded at my first arrival in the country. I could not account for it, but supposed that the excitement of a great religious festival and the sudden death of the Chief Pauper and the Chief Hag had probably deeply impressed them. In the midst of these thoughts the whole multitude arose; and once more there came to my ears the universal uproar of innumerable cries, in the midst of which I could hear the words, *"Ap Ram!" "Mosel anan wacosek!" "Sopet Mut!"*

CHAPTER XXXI.

CONCLUSION.

In the midst of this the paupers and the hags talked earnestly together. Some of those who had been nearest in rank to the late Chief Pauper and Chief Hag were conspicuous in the debate. All looked at me and at Almah, and pointed toward the sun, which was wheeling along behind the distant mountain crest, showing a golden disc. Then they pointed to the dead bodies; and the hags took the Chief Hag, and the paupers the Chief Pauper, and laid them side by side on the central altar. After this a hag and a pauper advanced toward us, each carrying the sacrificial knife which had belonged to the deceased.

The hag spoke first, addressing Almah, in accordance with the Kosekin custom, which requires women to take the precedence in many things.

"Take this," she said, "O Almah, consort of Atam-or, and Co-ruler of Clouds and Darkness. Henceforth you shall be judge of death to the women of the Kosekin."

She then handed Almah the sacrificial knife of the Chief Hag, which Almah took in silence.

Then the pauper presented me with the sacrificial knife of the Chief Pauper, with the following words:

"Take this, O Atam-or, Father of Thunder and Ruler of Clouds and Darkness. Henceforth you shall be Judge of Death to the men of the Kosekin, and *Sar Tabakin* over the whole nation."

I received the knife in silence, for I had nothing to say; but now Almah spoke, as was fitting for her to do, since with the Kosekin the women must take the precedence; and here it was expected that she should reply in behalf of both of us.

So Almah, holding the sacrificial knife, stood looking at them, full of dignity, and spoke as follows:

"We will take this, O Kosekin, and we will reward you all. We will begin our reign over the Kosekin with memorable acts of mercy. These two great victims shall be enough for the *Mista Kosek* of this season. The victims designed for this sacrifice shall have to deny themselves the blessing of death, yet they shall be rewarded in other ways; and all the land from the highest to the lowest shall have reason to rejoice in our rule.

"To all you hags and paupers we grant the splendid and unparalleled boon of exile to Magones. There you can have all the suffering which heart can wish, and inevitable death. To all classes and ranks in the whole nation we promise to grant a diminution in their wealth by one-quarter. In the abundance of our mercy we are willing ourselves to bear the burden of all the offerings that may be necessary in order to accomplish this. All in the land may at once give up one-quarter of their whole wealth to us."

At this the hags and paupers gave a horrible yell of applause.

"As rulers of Light and Darkness, we will henceforth govern the nation in the light as well as in the dark. We will sacrifice ourselves so far to the public good as to live in the light, and in open palaces. We will consent to undergo the pains of light and splendor, to endure all the evils of luxury, magnificence, and boundless wealth, for the good of the Kosekin nation. We will consent to forego the right of separation, and agree to live together, even though we love one another. Above all, we will refuse death and consent to live. Can any rulers do more than this for the good of their people?"

Another outburst of applause followed.

"In three *joms*," continued Almah, "all you hags and paupers shall be sent to exile and death on Magones. As for the rest of the Kosekin, hear our words. Tell them from us that the laborers shall all be elevated to the rank of paupers, the artisans shall be made laborers, the tradesmen artisans, the soldiers tradesmen, the Alhons soldiers, the Kohens Alhons, and the Meleks Kohens. There shall be no Meleks in all the land. We, in our love for the Kosekin, will henceforth be the only Meleks. Then all the misery of that low station will rest on us; and in our low estate as Meleks we shall govern this nation in love and self-denial. Tell them that we will forego the sacrifice and consent to live; that we will give up darkness and cavern gloom and live in light. Tell them to prepare for us the splendid palaces of the Meleks, for we will take the most sumptuous and magnificent of them all. Tell all the people to present their offerings. Tell them that we consent to have endless retinues of servants, soldiers, followers, and attendants. Tell them that with the advent of Almah and Atam-or a new era begins for the Kosekin, in which every man may be as poor as he likes, and riches shall be unknown in the land."

These extraordinary words seemed to fill the paupers with rapture. Exclamations of joy burst from them; they prostrated themselves in an irrepressible impulse of grateful admiration, as though such promises could only come from superior beings. Then most of them hurried down to communicate to the people below the glorious intelligence. Soon it spread from mouth to mouth, and all the people were filled with the wildest excitement.

For never before had such a thing been known, and never had such self-sacrifice been imagined or thought possible, as that the rulers of the Kosekin could consent to be rich when they might be paupers; to live together when they might be separate; to dwell in the light when they might lurk in the deepest cavern gloom; to remain in life when they might have the blessing of death. Selfishness, fear of death, love of riches, and love of luxury, these were all unintelligible to the Kosekin, as much as to us would be self-abnegation, contempt of death, voluntary poverty, and asceticism. But as with us self-denying rulers may make others rich and be popular for this, so here among the Kosekin a selfish ruler might be popular by making others poor. Hence the words of Almah, as they were made known, gave rise to the wildest excitement and enthusiasm, and the vast multitude poured forth their feelings in long shouts of rapturous applause.

Amid this the bodies of the dead were carried down from the pyramid, and were taken to the *Mista Kosek* in a long and solemn procession, accompanied by the singing of wild and dismal chants.

And now the sun, rolling along behind the icy mountain crest, rose higher and higher every moment, and the bright light of a long day began to illumine the world. There sparkled the sea, rising far away like a watery wall, with the horizon high up in the sky; there rose the circle of giant mountains, sweeping away till they were blended with the horizon; there rose the terraces of the *amir*, all glowing in the sunlight, with all its countless houses and cavern-openings and arching trees and pointing pyramids. Above was the canopy of heaven, no longer black, no longer studded with stars or glistening with the fitful shimmer of the aurora, but all radiant with the glorious sunlight, and disclosing all the splendors of the infinite blue. At that sight a thrill of joy passed through me. The long, long night at last was over; the darkness had passed away like some hideous dream; the day was here—the long day that was to know no shadow and no decline—when all this world should be illuminated by the ever-circling sun—a sun that would never set until his long course of many months should be fully run. My heart swelled with rapture, my eyes filled with tears. "O Light!" I cried; "O gleaming, golden Sunlight! O Light of Heaven!—light that brings life and hope to man!" And I could have fallen on my knees and worshipped that rising sun.

But the light which was so glorious to us was painful and distressing to the Kosekin. On the top of the pyramid the paupers crouched, shading their eyes. The crowd below began to disperse in all directions, so as to betake themselves to their coverts and to the caverns, where they might live in the dark. Soon nearly all were gone except the paupers at the foot of the pyramid, who were awaiting our commands, and a crowd of Meleks and Alhons at a distance. At a gesture from me the few paupers near us descended and joined those below.

Almah and I were alone on the top of the pyramid.

I caught her in my arms in a rapture of joy. This revulsion from the lowest despair—from darkness and from death back to hope and light and life—was almost too much to endure. We both wept, but our tears were those of happiness.

"You will be all my own now," said I, "and we can fly from this hateful land. We can be united—we can be married—here before we start—and you will not be cruel enough to refuse. You will consent, will you not, to be my wife before we fly from the Kosekin?"

At this Almah's face became suffused with smiles and blushes. Her arms were about me, and she did not draw away, but looked up in sweet confusion and said,

"Why, as to that—I—I cannot be more your—your wife than I am."

"What do you mean?" I exclaimed, in wonder. "My wife!"

Her eyes dropped again, and she whispered:

"The ceremony of separation is with the Kosekin the most sacred form of marriage. It is the religious form; the other is merely the civil form."

This was unintelligible, nor did I try to understand it. It was enough to hear this from her own sweet lips; but it was a strange feeling, and I think I am the only man since Adam that ever was married without knowing it.

"As to flight," continued Almah, who had quite adopted the Kosekin fashion, which makes women take the lead—"as to flight, we need not hurry. We are all-powerful now, and there is no more danger. We must wait until we send embassies to my people, and when they are ready to receive us, we will go. But now let us leave this, for our servants are waiting for us, and the light is distressing to them. Let us go to the nearest of our palaces and obtain rest and food."

Here Featherstone stopped, yawned, and laid down the manuscript.

"That's enough for to-day," said he; "I'm tired, and can't read any more. It's time for supper."

THE END.

THE CITY OF PUEBLO.

Prosperity comes to Pueblo as water runs down hill. In the remote past the attraction of gravitation made the site of the city of Pueblo a meeting-place for bands of primeval Indians and roving Spaniards, and later for scouts, soldiers, and overland traders. In the present generation the same force has built there a fine commercial city, and started within it the wheels of industrial progress. The overland traveller bound West made the spot his camping-ground, because there he met his friends who had followed the course of the Fontaine qui Bouille down from Pike's Peak to the Arkansas Valley, and those who had struck across country from La Veta Pass, or had drifted eastward from the neighborhood of the Royal Gorge. That unwritten law of frontier usage which designates the confluences of streams as meeting points for migratory settlers was at Pueblo as plainly carried out as that more tangible modern rule which says that manufacturing centres must be so placed that raw material shall come to them on the down grade.

Unlike many Western towns, Pueblo thus has an actual reason for the choice of its location. Nature so clearly indicated the use of the rolling stretch of land at the confluence of the Arkansas and the Fontaine qui Bouille that man could not help working out the general plan. The first persons to recognize the value of the place as a commercial point were a few half-wild trappers and hunters who, in common with a number of lethargic Mexicans from Santa Fe and Taos, built a few rude adobe huts under the bluff something like fifty years ago. Here they traded with the Indians for furs in intermittent times of peace, and fought them with fire-arms the rest of the time. To give the traders the advantage against the savages in this last-named diversion the adobes were built half-way up the bluff, not wholly unlike the cliff-dwellings in the cañon of the Rio Mancos. As a further protection from the Indians the settlers built a fort of adobe bricks. For some reason only a few traces of this fort are now in existence. Some of the adobe huts, however, are still inhabited by the descendants of the first settlers.

The settlement was known as a pueblo—a Mexican town. The name clung persistently to the place, although in 1858 a settlement was made adjoining the site of the present city by one George McDougall, a brother of Governor and Senator McDougall, of California. This man—an educated, courtly mannered, picturesque border adventurer, who abandoned a good career in California to lead a wild life in Mexico and on the American frontier—built himself a big adobe house and fort combined, and started what he called Fountain City. He gathered about him a handful of half-breed Mexicans, and for some time he lived the wayward life of a feudal baron. The stampede across the plains to Pike's Peak in 1859 caused a grievous change in this enterprising person's border barony. The primitive civilization that was a necessary part of its successful existence did not meet with the approval of the pioneers of the Pike's Peak movement, and as a result Fountain City was neglected for the present site of the city on the north bank of the Arkansas River. When it is considered that Kansas at that time was unsettled, and that the Indians were always troublesome, the growth of the town during the next few years was really out of the ordinary. The settlement was nothing more than an overland trading station, yet in 1868 it had a sufficiently strong hope of permanent prosperity to start a weekly newspaper. Three years later the weekly, as a sort of draft upon the future, became a daily. However doubtful this enterprise may have seemed then, subsequent events have fully justified it, for that audacious publication is now one of the leading daily newspapers of the West.

This demonstration of confidence on the part of the people was followed by the building into the town of the Denver and Rio Grande, and Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe railways. A business flurry of a particularly cyclonic nature then took possession of the place. Its effects were more plainly seen on the low land south of the river, where the railroads, for topographical reasons, staked out their yards and built their stations. The town of South Pueblo rose out of the dust with all that tumultuous haste for which Western places are noted, and stood ready to take care of any business that the railroads might bring. It had not long to wait. The Denver and Rio Grande Railway, which did not stop at Pueblo, but went south to the coal-fields near Trinidad, and west to countless gold and silver mines in the mountains, showed in a practical way what old traders and half-civilized trappers knew years ago—that everything except manufactured goods from the East came to Pueblo on the down grade. When it was known that a car of coal from the Trinidad mines and a car of mineral from the mountains would come to Pueblo by the attraction of gravitation, it seemed natural that some one should take advantage of that combination of circumstances and build a smelter. The fluctuating condition of the silver-mining industry prevented Pueblo's advance in this direction for some time, but in 1878 a company of men put a lively little smelter into operation on the outskirts of the town. So great an advantage in point of location have these works had over their rivals, that they have become the largest of the kind in the State. In the following year a number of the chief stockholders of the Denver and Rio Grande Railway bought a piece of land near South Pueblo and built large steel-works. As much of the State of Colorado is underlaid with iron ore and coal, the new works had no difficulty in making Bessemer steel at a handsome profit. The natural result was that the establishment became the largest of its kind west of the Missouri Valley. It employs about 1200 men, and does an annual business of $2,500,000. The thriving village of Bessemer, with pretty cottages and wide streets, has grown up near the works. Later on, the business of Pueblo was increased by the addition of two more smelters and several manufactories, which have all demonstrated to their stockholders the advantage of a location at the foot of three grades.

While the attraction of gravitation has made Pueblo a manufacturing city, and no doubt will yet cause it to become what the people call it now, "the Pittsburgh of the West," its location with respect to the surrounding country has given it prominence as a railroad centre. Within the past six months the Missouri Pacific Railroad has laid its tracks into South Pueblo from Kansas; the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe has built a new line from Pueblo to Denver; and the new Colorado Midland has made connections for Leadville and Aspen. Of more importance than any enterprise that has affected Pueblo in recent years is the building of the Denver, Texas, and Gulf Railroad, which places Colorado shippers within 900 miles of the seaboard. The importance to Pueblo of this line cannot well be overestimated, as, in the nature of things, the advantage of an almost certain control of the trade of the State would be largely increased by the handling of the export business of the entire Rocky Mountain region. As a result of her present rapid growth and bright future prospects, Pueblo's population is made up chiefly of business men and their families. During the summer, when travellers make the city their home for a few days, and invalids try the water at the springs, the number of persons in the streets, hotels, and well-built houses is somewhat in excess of the average for the rest of the year. Especially is this the case in fair week, when the spare chinks in the city are filled to overflowing with visitors from all parts of Colorado, Utah, Kansas, and New Mexico. How handsomely these visitors are entertained, the stranger who has met Pueblo's people in their own city can well appreciate. There is a commingled heartiness and cordiality in the social life of Pueblo that few American cities are fortunate enough to possess, and a natural courtesy in the conduct of business that many places might imitate to excellent advantage. In the near future, social affairs will divert Pueblo much more than at present from its earnest pursuit of business, for with the settlement of the neighboring country by farmers, which must soon take place, now that the monopolistic cattle-men have been compelled to relinquish much government land that they had seized, Pueblo will be the winter home of many people who will have ranches within a hundred miles of the city. The excellent schools of Pueblo would of themselves be sufficient to attract this winter population.

The casual visitor will find facts and figures lying in wait for him at street corners and odd places along the public highway. He will be told that since the incorporation of South Pueblo and Central Pueblo into the main city the value of property has increased many fold; that the assessed valuation of the city is now about $8,000,000; that the business of the city, exclusive of real estate transactions, amounts to $25,000,000 a year; that the yearly output of the three smelters is $15,000,000; that buildings valued at $1,500,000 were put up during 1887; that as many more are building and under contract for 1888; that the volume of business for 1887 was fifty per cent. greater than in 1886; and that the present population of 20,000 is merely a nucleus for what is to become the largest city in the Rocky Mountain country. In addition, the history of the city from the romantic and half-wild past to the present peaceful day has become of substantial interest to the busy folk. A striking illustration of this is the bitter but unavailing regret for the official vandalism that destroyed the historic big tree in Union Avenue a few years ago. Next to the law of natural selection, the big tree had done more than anything else to give Pueblo a start in life. It had been a landmark for Indians, Mexicans, and Americans for scores upon scores of years. Indians held their councils in its shade; Fremont, Kit Carson, St. Vrain, Bent, and other explorers had camped beneath it; fourteen outlaws were hanged at one time, it is said, from its branches; and the first white woman that died in Colorado was buried among its far-spreading roots. Second only to Pike's Peak itself as a landmark, it stood in rugged majesty until some four years ago, when the Common Council of South Pueblo had it cut down because it was supposed to be a hinderance to the transaction of business. Only when the noble cottonwood was felled did the belief come home to even the Councilmen that it had never been in the way. All that could be done then, however, was to set up a section of the tree at the Union Railway Station as a monument, not only of the great tree itself, but also of the wretched vandalism that laid it low.

William Willard Howard.

NEW YORK'S "FAVORITE SON."

The active political career of Chauncey Mitchell Depew can be summed up in a few words. He took the stump for Fremont in '56 and for Lincoln in '60. He was elected to the Assembly in '61, and was chosen Secretary of State in '63, at the age of twenty-nine, by a majority of 30,000 votes. He declined a renomination, declined also an offer of the mission to Japan, just missed being made Collector of the Port by President Johnson, and devoted himself to the practice of his profession until 1872, when he ran for Lieutenant-Governor on the Liberal Republican ticket, and was defeated In 1881 his name was presented for United States Senator in the struggle that ensued upon the resignation of Senators Conkling and Platt, and was for some time prominent in the balloting. It was withdrawn in order to break the dead-lock that seemed imminent. In 1884 he might have had the Senatorship without lifting a finger, but he refused it. Mr. Depew has not held a public office, therefore, since 1865. He has not been a nominee for any office since 1872, and then he ran on the anti-Republican ticket. Notwithstanding this, he is today one of the most prominent and best known men in the Republican party, and is "mentioned" as an eligible candidate for the Presidency. This is a remarkable state of affairs, and requires some explanation, which can best be given by a short summary of the more prominent events in his life.

To begin at the beginning, he was born at Peekskill on the 23d of April, 1834. His father, Isaac Depew, a man of strong, determined character, was of Huguenot descent. The name was originally spelled De Puy, but was metamorphosed into Depew during the stay of the exiled family in Holland. His mother, whose maiden name was Maria Mitchell, was a daughter of Chauncey Mitchell, and a granddaughter of Josiah Sherman, a Revolutionary patriot, whose brother, Roger Sherman, is perhaps better known than himself.

The boy grew up in Peekskill, going to the academy when he had made progress enough in his studies, and becoming "fitted" there—after a fashion—for Yale. He entered college in 1852, and was graduated in 1856 without high honors, according to his friend ex-Speaker James William Husted, who has known Depew for thirty-seven years, and who has represented the Peekskill district in the Assembly ever since his friend was elected Secretary of State in 1863.

The Depews had always been Democrats; but in college Chauncey imbibed some new ideas, and immediately on graduation he took the stump for Fremont and Free-Soil. In college and in the academy he had always been one of the best debaters and declaimers, and his maiden efforts on the stump were well received. After this campaign he applied himself to the study of law. He was admitted to the bar in 1858, and having attracted the favorable notice of Cornelius Vanderbilt, was appointed attorney for the Harlem Railroad in 1866, and attorney for the whole New York Central system three years later. In 1875 he was made general counsel of the system, which had then grown almost to its present size, and at the same time was chosen a director. Upon the reorganization in 1882 he was made Second Vice-President of the company, and when President Rutter died he became the official head of the "Vanderbilt" roads.

In these relations with the New York Central system lies the secret of some of Mr. Depew's strength as a politician and of much of his weakness as a possible candidate. For fifteen years he had more or less to do with taking care of the interests of the road at Albany. He became acquainted with every Senator, Assemblyman, and lobbyist in the State. By his intellectual brightness, his good-fellowship, and his resulting personal popularity he gained a large acquaintance and a considerable political influence. It is not hard to see, therefore, why he did not fall, as most beaten candidates would have fallen, into political obscurity after the *fiasco* of 1872. His railway connections enabled him still to retain a large influence at Albany—an influence that kept growing stronger until, in 1881, he was almost chosen Senator in the exciting contest that finally ended in the election of Warner Miller and Elbridge G. Lapham. He might have been Lapham's successor if he had chosen, but in the mean time he had become President of the Central system of railways, and it would take more than a Senatorship to tempt almost any man, not a millionaire already, to give up the Presidency of one of the greatest corporations in the world, with a salary beside which a Senator's meagre stipend looks very poor and small. Once before Mr. Depew had a similar choice presented to him. It was when, under Andrew Johnson's administration, Mr. Seward offered him the post of Minister to Japan. He was then simply a young attorney—it was before his connection with the Harlem road—with a rather poor law business, and the political bait was very tempting. "But I thought," he is reported to have said, "that if I accepted that place, and so got a confirmed taste for public office, I would become a political pauper, and so I refused it."

There is another side of Mr. Depew's many-faceted nature that helps also to account for his prominence as a possible Republican candidate at this time. The talent for "speaking pieces" that he showed at school has been cultivated assiduously; the fondness for good stories, and the memory that retains them, have not grown rusty; the cordiality of nature and geniality of address that made him popular as a youth have increased with years; so that now Mr. Depew is by all odds the best known after-dinner speaker in America—and of course, by inference, in the world—and has also no mean reputation as an orator on serious occasions. As for social honors, he has recently been unanimously re-elected President of the Union League Club, and he is kept talking at one social "function" or another most of the time. As the New York daily newspapers always print what he says, he is the best advertised man in America. In fact, his reputation, so far as it is national, has been made almost entirely by the newspapers. The secret of the universally kind journalistic treatment of him lies no doubt partly in his own kindly treatment of reporters. He is always accessible. He almost always has enough to say to give the reporter a good "story," in the newspaper sense, and he has such a way of doing it that every reporter who goes to him fully believes forever afterward that the genial railway president is his personal friend. In all the columns and pages that have been written about Depew in the newspapers, one will never find in the news department anything that looks like "writing down." There may be occasionally an unfriendly editorial, but the reporters all like Depew.

A reputation as a first-rate after-dinner orator, however, is not perhaps the strongest claim a man could present as a Presidential candidate; nor is an intimate connection with railway management, especially with the legal part of that management, a sure passport to popular favor. Lincoln, to be sure, was a good teller of stories, and one of the finest serious orators this country ever produced; but men are not generally nominated for high office because of good-fellowship or of oratorical gifts and graces. It is because Depew can carry New York, his friends say, that he must be nominated. "As goes New York, so goes the Union; Depew can carry New York; therefore he is the man to nominate," is the syllogism propounded. As he has not been before the people as a candidate for twenty-five years, it is not easy to either prove or disprove such an assertion. His connection with corporations might hurt him, say the critics, in the Northwest, where the beneficent character of the New York Central management is not so well known as it is in this State; but the Northwest, it is alleged in reply, is Republican anyhow, and we can afford to lose one or two States there if we carry New York. All this argument, of course, is purely on the question of availability, and rests on the assumption that his influence with the railway employés and his personal popularity would gain him several thousand more votes than any other candidate. Mr. Depew's political creed is the kind of Republicanism avowed by the Blaine enthusiasts, with the single omission from the standard "properties" of the "bloody shirt." His recent oration in Chicago, on Washington's birthday, was ultra-protectionist as to the tariff, and indicated that he would favor a restriction of immigration. He is believed to be inclined toward a conciliatory Southern policy, and toward the form of temperance agitation known as the "anti-saloon" movement, although as yet he has kept clear of all entangling alliances on those two questions. One thing is sure: that if by some chance Mr. Depew should be nominated by the Republicans and elected, there would be a President in the White House who could give remarkably pleasant state dinners, and who could enliven cabinet meetings with the best stories that have been heard there since the days of Mr. Lincoln.

"WAS THERE NOTHING TO ARBITRATE?"

To the Editor of Harper's Weekly:

An article in Harper's Weekly of April 21st, under the caption "Was There Nothing to Arbitrate?" is remarkable to me, chiefly from the ignorance of the facts in the case displayed by the writer. That any one possessing confessedly such imperfect information should calmly proceed to condemn the action and impugn the motives of men charged with such grave responsibilities as were the managers of the C., B., and Q. R. R. Co. is unfortunate in any case; in this case especially mischievous, because the name signed to the article is widely known; and most people will not stop to reflect that a professed writer of fiction is not the safest guide in the region of cold fact. The assumption that the management of the railroad treated the strike as "a private matter," or that it "failed" in any respect in "its duties to the public," is wholly unwarranted by the facts: precisely the contrary is true. It is not a fact that at any time there was an offer to arbitrate made by the employés of the company; nor is it a fact that "the community was the immediate sufferer from the impolicy of the road." A pamphlet was published and largely circulated—which was or might have been read by every one interested—stating in detail the demands of the striking engineers, and the replies of the officers of the company. It contained nothing but admitted facts, and utterly disproves the flippant assertion that this strike was merely a struggle "between men who wanted to make a better living and a corporation that wants to make more money."

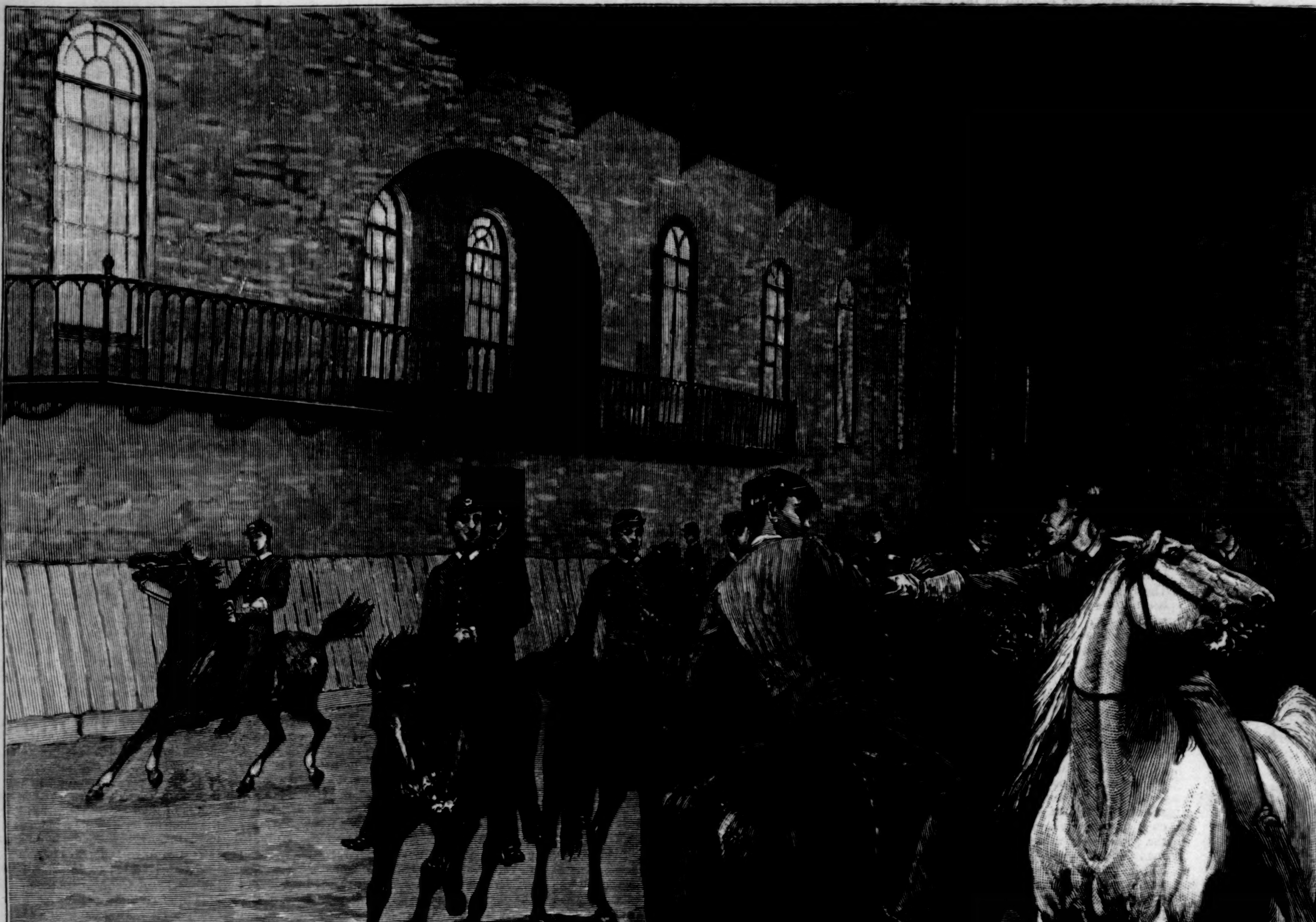
Personally I have no direct interest in the matter. I am not interested in any railroad as stockholder, officer, or employé; I am one of several thousands of business men living on the line of the C., B., and Q. R. R., dependent upon it largely for business facilities, and who, more than any others, suffer from any suspension of its traffic. In some of the cities along the line all of the prominent business men have, in joint letters over their signatures, fully endorsed the action of the C., B., and Q. managers, and the unanimity of this feeling among all classes of business men, all along the line of road, is both well known and remarkable. We here, in the full light of all the facts, know that the management has *not* failed in its duties to the public; that, so far as the strike of its employés was concerned, there would have been no interruption of its business; and that the sole cause of such interruption as there has been was the contemptible action of managers of certain rival corporations, who, to cripple a competitor, dared to disobey the law requiring them to exchange business.

As soon as it was known that the 2000 engineers and firemen of the C., B., and Q. R. R. had abandoned their places (even before they had done so, on the rumor that they would), applications for those places poured in by hundreds from competent men in all parts of the country. The men were put to work as fast as needed, and the business of the road, though hampered, was never stopped. It was soon apparent that the "Brotherhood" had made a mistake in supposing that they had "cornered" the labor market; it was evident there were plenty of capable men glad to get places paying from $125 to $200 per month; and seeing this, there is little doubt that the strike would have promptly ended but for the never-to-be-forgotten action of the managers of the roads before mentioned. Deluded by the false hope that this action would in some way improve their position, the striking engineers delayed to ask for employment until every place was filled. Then, and not till then, was arbitration thought of. It was not until the 6th of April, when the railroad was doing an immense business, with a full complement of capable employés, that "arbitration" was proposed by the Brotherhood. Arbitration of what? The men who made this suggestion were not employés of the railroad company; the relations of the company with all its employés were satisfactory; there was therefore nothing to arbitrate. It is a strange thing to observe nowadays the tendency, even among intelligent men, to ignore the claims of the *man who is at work;* the fellows who conspire to "better their condition," and quit work, after the manner of strikers, have all our sympathy, while the industrious man who seeks to support his family by his daily toil gets the cold shoulder, and is lucky if he receives any protection in the exercise of this most sacred of all rights.

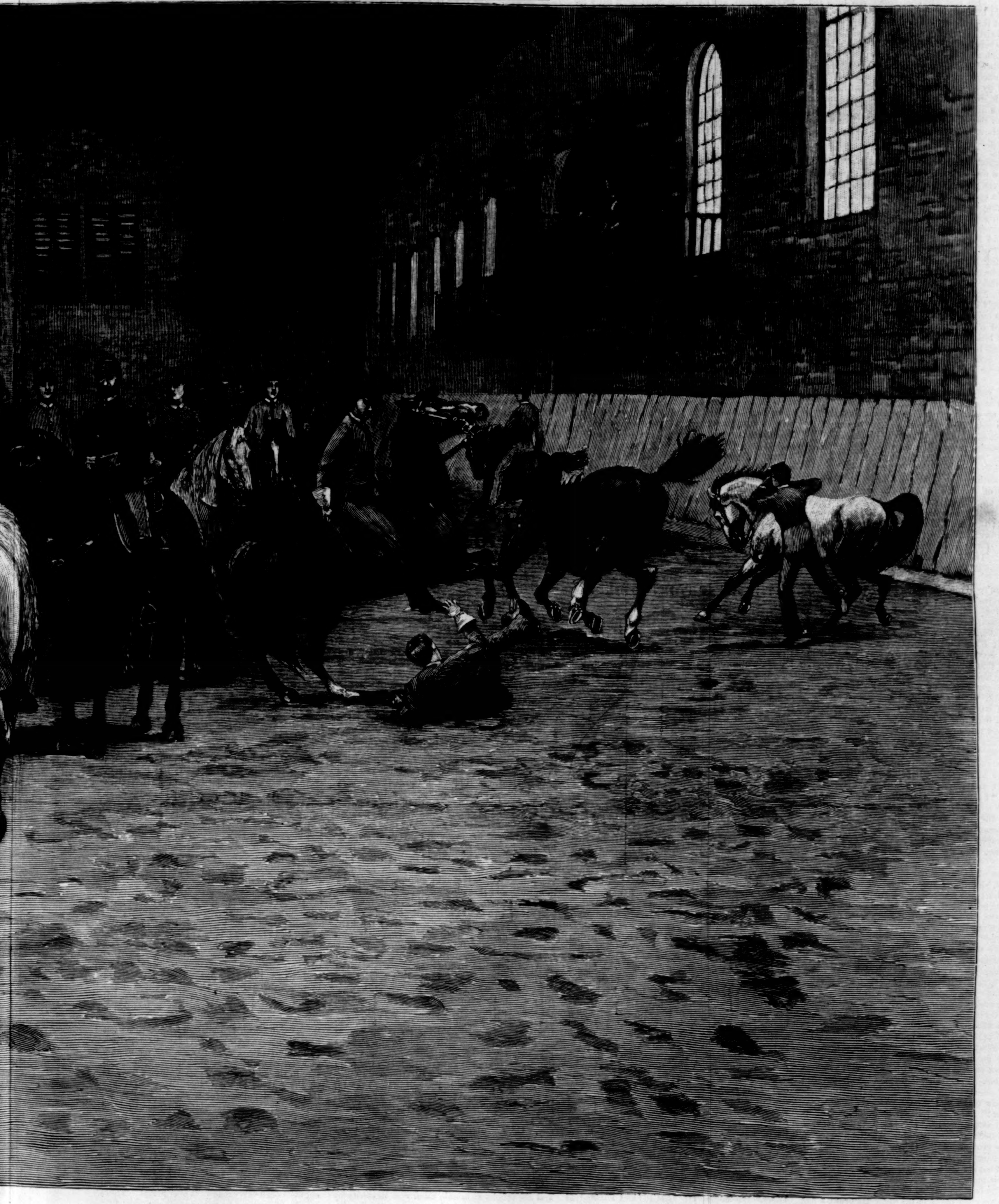
How many of the readers of your paper have any idea of what the demands of the striking engineers on the C., B., and Q. R. R. really were? One of these demands was that the road should give free transportation to *all members of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, and their families*, whenever demanded. Another was that all examinations and tests as to the competency of engineers should be done away with, except those to which the Brotherhood should consent. Another practically forbade the discharge of an engineer without the assent of the Brotherhood; and there is no doubt among well-informed men here that the whole proceeding was part of a scheme, that has been maturing for several years, to make locomotive engineers independent of all control except that of their Brotherhood. To this end the most turbulent agitators in their organization have one after another been brought to the front as chairmen of their "Grievance Committees," until the better portion found themselves bound hand and foot. The men making these demands are now the best paid of any class of employés in the country, and any further demands were sheer wantonness. They are not skilled mechanics; any intelligent man can learn their duties in a very short time (and they practically admit this in their claim for the abolishment of classification); their labor is easy, and their hours short; and compared with other members of the train crews, their place is the safest. Personally, the engineer should be trustworthy, and of approved good judgment, and this the classification system tends to insure. It is just this that the B. of L. E. wants to break down; putting all on one level, it would deprive its members of the strongest incentive to good conduct. Two years ago, when the late T. J. Potter was Vice-President of the C., B., and Q. R. R. Co., similar demands (though not so radical as the recent ones) were made by the B. of L. E., which that gentleman promptly and emphatically refused to consider, on the ground that the *protection of the public interest* made it absolutely necessary that the company control its engineers. The demands were then withdrawn; they were unjust and inadmissible then; they are so now; and the present able management of this road is entitled to the thanks of every citizen for maintaining a position which affords the only reasonable hope for efficient service where the public safety and welfare are so much concerned as in railroad travel and transportation.

G. H. Higbee.

Burlington, Iowa, *April* 23, 1888.


R. F. Zogbaum
'87

THE CAVALRY SCHOOL AT WEST POIN



NT.—Drawn by R. F. Zogbaum.—[See Page 338.]

SYMPATHY.

“Well, what do you want?” asked the Mayor, as the old man finally looked in the door. He had been passing and repassing in front of the office all noon, oscillating in indecision. He was from the country—a thin old fellow, with small blinking eyes and wrinkled face. His limp red hair had attained a sort of uncertain gray. In and out the furrows of his shallow chin a sparse beard bristled, leaving quite bare spots here and there where he had rubbed off the hair, rubbing with such a hard, horny hand, year after year, in moments of indecision—evidently the majority of the moments of his life. His mouth had been shaped by a pipe, which, drawing down the corner of it, drew all the wrinkles of his face into it as into a drain.

“You the Mayor of this town?” The words slid without inflection or emphasis on to a thin, drawling, nasal voice.

“Yes. What do you want?”

“Nothin', sir; nothin' in perticular—”

There was a pause, as if cogent reasons in his mind were giving him another warning. He fastened his eyes on the Mayor's face as if he were examining seedling potatoes.

“I only want sympathy, sir—sympathy.”

He closed his mouth suddenly, all to the pipe hole, and began rubbing his chin again. The solution of his doubts this time resulted in his conveying his communication in a monotonous undertone to himself, waiving all claims to a hearing, which rested entirely in the volition of the Mayor. The small eyes impartially looked unmeaningly into space.

“It's only that boy o' mine. I've had a powerful lot o' trouble with that boy o' mine. I've nussed him, I've 'tended him, I've labored with him, and I—I—I've prayed over him; I—I've prayed over that boy o' mine.” He looked at the Mayor for some expression over this last item.

“Oh, your boy in trouble?”

“He was tuck up to-day, and jedged. He's locked up over there.” He stopped rubbing his chin to point in the direction of the town jail.

“Locked up, eh? What was the matter?”

“Resisted the perlice, they call it. A feller tried to 'rest him. He knocked him down, my boy did.”

“Resisting the police, eh? resisting the authority of the law? Well, I'm very glad he's locked up. You country people think you can come into this town and run it just as you please. No, sir; if you all don't like this town, you can keep away; but if you do come here, you come on our terms, and you've got to behave yourselves.” The Mayor very generously reissued this fragment of the peroration of his morning's decision.

“You're right, sir; you're perfectly right. I ain't sayin' nothin'; I ain't complainin'; I only come for sympathy. They told me you was a gentleman, sir. I ain't got nothin' to say, sir; I only come for sympathy. I'm a stranger here myself; I 'ain't been here before in twenty year —not sence before the boy wuz born.—I've nussed that boy, I've 'tended him, and I've prayed over him”—relapsing into audible meditation. “He as good's had no mother. I helt him with one hand while I 'stritched' her with t'other—my old woman. She died the fust thing after he wuz born, my old woman did. He wuz *that* puny and tiny and red, there wuz no tellin' which eend from t'other 'cept by the squallin'.”

“Well, I reckon he'll never learn his duty to the law younger.”

“The old woman warn't much of a help or comfort either,” without noticing the interruption. “I don't know as old women ginerally is. Always a-quarrellin' and a-complainin' and a-settin' by the fire. But she lef' the boy to me, the old woman did, ef she did die herself.—I—I—I've prayed over that boy; yes, sir, I've prayed over him. We was a-goin' back home this evenin'.”

“One night in the lock-up won't hurt him.”

“No, sir; that's true. It won't hurt him; it won't hurt him a mite—one night in the lock-up. He fout, an' cussed, an' kicked, an' scritched, like a painter, my boy did. He didn't want to go to the lock-up, that's a fact. He tared round consider'ble.”

“How much fine was it besides?”

“Twenty-five dollars, sir.”

“Twenty-five? Well, I can't let him come down here and clean out the town and invalid the whole police force for less than that.”

“There's always something happenin' to that boy ever sence the old woman died. The fust time I washed him he 'most drownded in the piggin o' water. He could scarcely crawl 'fore he went to waller in the fire. He's fell down and broke his arm. He's shot his self accidental. He's cut his self all over with knives and hatchets and axes. Everything that could cut has cut that boy.”

“How much money have you got?”

“Me!” The old fellow's hand stopped of itself in astonishment. His jaw fell; the pipe, if it had been in place, would have broken to pieces on the ground. “Me? I 'ain't got no money. I come from the mounting.”

“What did you come to town for, if you haven't got any money?”

“The boy, he wanted to come. He wanted to see a town for oncet in his life. He brung a live 'coon with him, sir, what he caught, and some skins—otter-skins.”

“Well, what did he do with them?”

“Traded 'em off, sir. A side o' green meat wuz what he calkerlated on. But he took boots, sir—boots to come up outside o' his breeches.” He gesticulated toward the place where, under more favorable circumstances, the calf of his leg might have been visible under the patched trousers. “They wuz handsome boots. He wouldn't take 'em fust. Wanted me to hev 'em. Me with boots outside o' my breeches!” He would have smiled if his mouth had known how.

“Suppose I make the fine five dollars?”

“That's reasonable, sir; that's reasonable. But just as you please, sir.—I've had a mighty heap o' trouble with that boy. I've nussed—”

“You look around and see if you can't scrape up the money, and be in the court-room early tomorrow morning. Good-by!”

The next morning by daylight the Mayor was summoned. As he descended the stairs of his residence he saw a grayish-red head cautiously thrust inside the front door and withdrawn four or five times.

“Hello! What are you doing here this hour of the morning?”

“Nothin', sir; only to see you 'ain't forgot.”

“Well, I haven't.”

“He's there, sir; there in the lock-up, my boy is. He's a-waitin' there for you. I set up with him all night, on the outside. I wuz bound to be there. He wrinched the bar out, an' he drapped out, 'most on top o' me.”

“The devil he did!”

“He ain't calkerated to spend the night away from me. He never did that sence he wuz born. No, sir. But he went back fair and square, climbed right back, when I explained to him; an' he staid thar all night, in the lock-up. He wuz reasonable, sir, mighty reasonable. He wouldn't talk much; he didn't want to disturb no one. We only looked at each other, sir.—I've had a powerful heap o' trouble along o' that boy. I nussed him; I 'tended him; I actually prayed over him.”

“Here! I can't stay any longer.”

“You wouldn't take these here for the fine, would you? They mought fit you.”

He fetched the hand that did not attend to his chin from behind his back and held up a pair of boots.

“He tuck 'em right off, my boy did. He said he didn't wurnt the darn things noways; he'd ruther go barefoot all his life. He's there, sir, in the lock-up, a-waitin' on me. He said he'd wait on me, an' he won't go back on his word. But he's in a mighty hurry to go home, my boy is. He's done said he'd stay there, though, twell I come back. He allers stays if I stays. When the old woman went off and died, he staid with me. He could 'a went and died as easy as not.—A missable, puny—”

“I said five dollars, and I stick to it—here!”

The door closed, and the Mayor retired upstairs. The old man looked at the five-dollar bill which had been thrust into his hand. “They told me the Mayor was a gentleman, and they told me to come to him for sympathy.”

Grace King.

THE WEST POINT RIDING-SCHOOL.

Upon arriving at West Point the visitor has to ascend a long hill in order to reach the plain on which most of the public buildings are located. In ascending, the river is on his right, and when he nears the top, the road makes a turn to the left, and then to the right as it passes around and above a small terrace. On this terrace is the cadet riding-hall—a large rectangular building, 218 feet long by 78 feet wide, built of granite, covered with a curved roof, and furnished with two small galleries within for the accommodation of spectators. It is the largest riding-hall in the United States, and was designed and constructed more than thirty years ago, at a time when Captain Robert E. Lee, of the Corps of Engineers, was Superintendent of the Military Academy. Here, during the winter months of his second, third, and fourth years at the Academy, the cadet is instructed in riding. In his first winter he receives a course of training in the gymnasium. That course is not intended to prepare the boys for riding, nor to produce great muscular development, but to make them strong, supple, and active, without heaviness, and one of its most noticeable effects is to facilitate subsequently their progress in the art of equitation.

In the autumn of their second year, when they are third-class men, the cadets are fitted with riding suits, and begin to look forward to their first lessons in horsemanship. This anticipation is accompanied in some instances with a little nervousness, for it must be remembered that probably not more than half a dozen members of the class have ever ridden sufficiently to have confidence on horseback, while many have never ridden at all. On the 1st of November the class is divided into four equal sections, and the riding begins. As the class usually has from sixty to eighty members, the sections contain from fifteen to twenty boys. They ride on alternate days, excepting Saturdays and Sundays, two of the sections alternating with the other two.

Instruction is given to one section at a time by one of the officers on duty at the Academy. The time devoted to each is one hour. The stable is a few yards from the riding-hall, and from sixty to eighty horses are kept, which are cared for by the Military Academy detachment of cavalry. A number of these soldiers are detailed regularly to saddle and bridle the horses required by each section, take them into the hall, turn them over to the cadets, and on the conclusion of the ride to take them back to the stable. For the first lessons the horses are saddled, and snaffle-bits used. The walk is the usual gait on the first day, but the slow trot soon takes its place, and becomes the only one. After a few days the stirrups are drawn up and crossed over the horse's neck in front of the saddle. By the end of two weeks the boys have acquired considerable confidence, and saddles are then discarded, and saddle blankets, secured by surcingles, are substituted. The boy that never rode before entering the Academy now commences the most absorbing point of his West Point career. He is a little stiff and sore from previous rides, but that is nothing compared to what is to come. After the section is mounted the horses are made to take a slow trot, and this gait is maintained with hardly a moment's cessation for the entire hour. The kindly assistance hitherto lent by the high cantle and pommel of the army saddle is sadly missed. The rider is not allowed to halt his horse nor change his gait, and if he finds himself losing his equilibrium, he must recover it if he can while the horse continues trotting, or he must take the consequences. In the mean time the instructor is constantly employed in giving advice and making corrections.

To appreciate the trials some of the boys now undergo let us station ourselves near the mess hall as the corps marches in battalion formation to dinner. A number of cadets not in ranks may be seen, who walk with care and deliberation, and are also going to dinner. Those young gentlemen are third-class men, and are not with their fellows because they are reported as sick—too sick, in fact, to march. They are stiff, bruised, and chafed, and to attain their most ardent wishes they would even like to be bedridden. The surgeon gives them sympathy, advice, and healing medicines, and excuses them from marching to meals and recitations. He will excuse them from marching anywhere, *on foot*, and even from sitting anywhere, if necessary, except on the back of a horse. There's the rub. On the subject of being excused from riding he is inflexible, and no heart-felt accounts of pain and suffering can move him. And so day after day the dreaded hours come, and with them the horses without saddles, those inevitable, tireless, infernal sixty-minutes-slow-trot machines, and teeth are gritted and agony endured. This treatment seems harsh, possibly cruel, but is followed by most beneficial results. The suffering does not last long, for the cadets are young and hardy, and in a short time their stiffened limbs regain their elasticity, their wounds heal, and their muscles harden. At the same time their riding improves, and further improvement becomes easier. By the end of December, even to the least proficient, the hall has lost most of its terrors, and falls are of rare occurrence except through carelessness.

Riding is suspended for a week or ten days after the 1st of January on account of the examinations, and when it is resumed the progress of the third class is rapid. Saddles are withheld for a month or six weeks longer, but the routine is varied by gymnastic exercises and riding at all gaits. While mounted and at a halt the boys are made to execute various movements with their arms and legs: without moving their legs, to lean backward till they touch their horses' backs with their heads, and to rise again; to lean over on either side and reach down as far as possible with the hand; to sit sideways, facing either side; to spring from their seats and face quickly about so as to sit astride facing their horses' tails, and to turn about again; to mount and to vault over their horses from either side; to wrestle while mounted, and to try to pull each other off; and to “mount double,” *i. e.*, two upon one horse. Most of these exercises, especially mounting, dismounting, and vaulting, are practised further at a walk, trot, and gallop. Finally curb-bridles and saddles are used, the exercises continued, and hurdle-jumping, with and without saddles, introduced. On the 15th of March the riding of the third class ceases. The same cadets resume riding as second-class men on the 1st of the next November. The class is then usually divided into two sections that ride for one hour on alternate days, as before. In the interval of seven and a half months their riding muscles have softened, and the boys have lost some of their skill, and it is necessary at first to observe moderation. For this reason they begin with saddles and snaffle-bits, as in the first instance, and in about two weeks the saddles are replaced by blankets. All the exercises taught the previous year are practised steadily for two or three months. The boys are then given spurs and sabres, and at the same time saddles and curb-bits are again brought into use. The sabre exercise is taught, and practice is given in cutting and thrusting on either side at heads made of leather and stuffed with hay, some on posts from two to five feet high, and some on the ground. This practice commences at the halt, and as proficiency increases it continues progressively in the walk, trot, and gallop, and finally with bare-backed horses. During the month of April, when the weather permits, the sections of the first and second classes that ride on the same day are drilled together on the plain in company and battalion drill. On the last of April the riding of the second class is discontinued.

The first class begins to ride on the 1st of September, and continues till the 1st of the following June. The class is divided into two sections that ride for an hour on alternate days, except Sundays. It is kept at cavalry drill on the plain till the commencement of cold weather, after which the riding is confined to the hall. Until the 1st of November of his first-class year, no cadet is allowed to ride habitually any particular horse, but takes the one that chance gives him each day. On that date he is allowed to select one for his permanent use, the manner of choosing being agreed upon among the cadets themselves. The routine of the hall exercises is the same as in the latter part of the second-class year, except that the boys have pistols in addition to sabres, and are taught to handle them with dexterity by practice-firing with blank cartridges at all gaits. In the spring, as soon as the weather permits, they return to cavalry drill on the plain. At the first-class rides in the hall, and those of the second class after sabres are issued, it is customary to begin the ride with cutting and thrusting at heads, and jumping hurdles. After about twenty minutes the horses are unsaddled, and the same exercises repeated with bare-backed horses. After that the sabres are put aside, and the gymnastic exercises practised, the mounting, dismounting, and vaulting being done at a fast trot or gallop. The instructor also frequently allows riding “at will,” when the cadets can break ranks and ride as they please. There is hardly a conceivable position on horseback that some of them will not then try to assume. They will endeavor to ride standing up, sitting sideways, or facing backward; some attempt to stand on their heads; others will wrestle or ride “double”; others still will dismount, vault over their horses, vault back, and mount again while charging around the hall. And it is reported that when there is an assemblage of young ladies in the gallery, the brave and gallant lads attempt the most daring deeds to win their approbation.

This outline of the riding course shows that the time given to individual instruction is largely devoted to training the rider to acquire a firm seat. The treatment of beginners may seem unnecessarily severe, but the time allotted is too short to waste it in coddling, and the method is justified by its good results. It has been said that the cadets at West Point are taught riding and not horsemanship, which, in a technical sense, is true, as they learn only the elements of school riding. But by using a different horse at each ride till he gets well along in his first-class year, by riding a great portion of the time without a saddle, and by the increased suppleness, activity, fearlessness, and confidence conferred by the gymnastic exercises practised in the hall, the cadet becomes competent to assume a firm, easy, and graceful seat upon almost any horse—no matter what his gait, tricks, vices, or temper—and *keep it*, and that is the very essence of horsemanship. One can readily see that the cadets run the risk of receiving many and perhaps dangerous injuries, and some do get laid up now and then with bruises or sprains that require a little rest and care; but fortunately more serious accidents are very rare. As for falls, hardly a day passes without a dozen occurring; but the tan-bark is soft; and sometimes a single cadet finds himself down three or four times in as many minutes. But what of that? Ask him if he is hurt, “No, sir,” the answer comes, prompt and clear, as he brushes the tan-bark from his face, and he mounts and tries again to do whatever he was attempting, and continues trying till he succeeds. His spirit is contagious. Emulation, pride, ambition, inspire the others; and it is very, very seldom indeed that a cadet will even think of leaving the hall on account of an injury, unless so badly hurt that he requires assistance to do so. The sentiments thus formed take root in the character, and in all of the West Point training there is nothing that contributes more than the riding in strengthening the spirit of honor that pervades the corps, and in making the cadets the brave, honest, manly fellows they certainly are.

THE SUPPOSED DOUBLE CANALS ON THE PLANET MARS.

By RICHARD A. PROCTOR.

Mars has returned to our skies, and though he might be called a morning star till the second week in April, he shines all through the night hours, and next to Jupiter is the night's chief glory. It is, indeed, a noteworthy circumstance that Mars, when situated as he is now, should be second even to Jupiter. From the known size and distance of each planet, and the known amount of light each receives from the sun, Mars should be the brighter of the two. But as any one can see who looks toward the southeastern skies on any clear night during this month, Jupiter surpasses Mars notably in brightness. It has been suggested in explanation that Jupiter does more than merely reflect sunlight, possessing probably some inherent lustre of his own due to the intense heat still pervading his mighty mass.

What makes Mars, however, just now an object of special interest to astronomers is not the consideration of any difference distinguishing him from giant planets like Jupiter and Saturn, which are probably in a different stage of world life, but certain remarkable features which the Italian astronomer Schiaparelli considered he had detected six years ago in Mars, regarded until then as a miniature of our earth.

Schiaparelli began pleasantly enough by recognizing in 1879–80 a number of delicate markings on the face of Mars, which did not differ in any noteworthy degree from markings already discovered, named, charted, and so forth. They looked as if they were either long narrow inlets by which the waters of the Martian seas found their way into the interior of the Martian continents, or else rivers carrying the waters which had fallen as rain upon those continents back to the Martian seas. Schiaparelli himself threw out the suggestion that they might be canals constructed by Martian engineers to complete the system of water communication already provided by nature in the singularly complex forms of the seas on the surface of the planet. It was perhaps this fanciful notion—for it can scarcely be regarded more seriously—which led Schiaparelli to depict these streaks as no one else ever saw them, though they have been seen by several Martian observers, with rigidly parallel outlines and a straightness of course which would lead to the idea that either there are no mountain ranges on Mars, or that Martian engineers can carry their canals across mountain-tops as readily as terrestrial engineers can carry roadways over plains. These canals, as depicted by Schiaparelli, are from fifty to a hundred miles wide, and some of them are more than two thousand miles long!

But in 1882 Schiaparelli found all his canals *doubled!* Beside each of those he had before drawn ran another at a distance averaging about three hundred miles. It is hardly necessary, perhaps, to say that Mars, as charted with these double canals, of which there are some thirty sets, presents a very remarkable appearance. He looks like nothing which had ever before been imagined in the heavens above or in the earth beneath; and it may be reasonably hoped that nothing in the waters under the earth can in the slightest degree resemble this fearful production.

The late Rev. T. W. Webb, himself an experienced observer, who, with a more powerful telescope than Schiaparelli, had failed to detect the marvellous system of double canals, was yet strongly disposed to believe in their objective reality. He was not so much struck as one might have expected by the circumstance that these wonderful markings had never been seen with telescopes of the larger sort, and have only been seen by Schiaparelli when Mars has been unfavorably situated for observation. "The confirmed existence of oblique white streaks," wrote this excellent observer in May, 1882, "the unfolding of minute labyrinthine detail, and the continuous development, day after day, of collateral lines which double the so-called 'canals,' and extend with them ordinarily along great circles of the Martian sphere—all these and similar announcements make us anxiously desire a more extended and detailed communication." Mr. Webb noted truly that though some of the appearances noted by Schiaparelli corresponded with what had been seen by earlier observers, the doubled canals stood alone. He therefore invited astronomers to pay special attention to Mars at his return in 1884.

In 1884, and again in 1886, Mars was closely studied by astronomers. The existence of long narrow streaks, such as Schiaparelli had observed, was confirmed. Indeed, except for a certain angularity and rigidity, which might probably be attributed to Schiaparelli's want of skill in drawing, there was nothing in his earlier pictures which did not correspond with what had been already frequently noted. Several long narrow streaks besides those delineated by Schiaparelli had been seen before 1879, and were detected in 1884 and 1886. But during Mars's return to our night skies in 1884, only Schiaparelli himself observed the duplicated canals. At the next return of Mars, in 1886, Schiaparelli failed to detect any of the double canals except one long one. Inasmuch, however, as this long double canal was seen by no fewer than five observers, viz., by Schiaparelli himself and his assistant Celoria, at Milan, and by Perrotin, Trépied, and Thollon, at Nice, the observations made in 1886 may be regarded as investing the inquiry with new interest.

Now that Mars is again favorably placed for view, we may be sure astronomers will look very carefully for the strange double streaks which Schiaparelli has seen, and supposes he has proved to be real features of the Martian world.

It will have been noticed that I have shown little disposition to regard the double canals as having any objective existence. I make no doubt that Schiaparelli has seen such double streaks as he describes, though I feel tolerably certain that he has not succeeded in picturing them quite as he sees them. But seeing is not always believing in such cases. Any one who looks at a star through a good telescope sees the star with a disk, and astronomers in old times measured the disk thus seen, under the idea that it was the real globe of the star; but it is now known to be simply an optical product (one can hardly call it an optical illusion, since the eye is not deceived). It is what is called the "diffraction disk" of a star. But further, one can *see* round this deceptive disk, at a certain measurable distance from it, a fine ring of light; beyond this another fainter ring; and beyond this others yet fainter. These are the "diffraction rings" of the star. If the telescopes of the seventeenth century had been better, astronomers seeing these concentric diffraction rings would probably have concluded that each star is girt round by a set of rings somewhat resembling those of the planet Saturn, but so situate that the ring system of every star appears absolutely circular, an arrangement which would soon have been recognized as too artificial to be at all probable. And they would later have discovered that the rings are not objective realities; for they would have found that these rings differed in size according to the telescope with which they were observed, or even as observed with the same telescope, if only the aperture of the telescope were altered by the use of ring-shaped diaphragms. The larger the aperture of the telescope, the smaller they would have found the diffraction disk of each star, and the smaller also the system of diffraction rings. The rings, in fine, are, like the disk, merely optical products, and no more represent realities than the multiplied images of a candle flame seen in an ordinary mirror, when the line of sight to the chief image is inclined at a small angle to the mirror's face.

Quorsum hæc? the reader may be disposed to ask. What can the diffraction disks and rings of stars have to do with the "double canals" of Mars? They have, in my opinion, so much to do with the imagined discovery that the "double canals" have probably no more real existence than the ring systems seen round the stars. But closer even than this is the probable kinship between the rings round stars and the double channels on Mars. I believe the double streaks seen at times where usually a single streak only is visible are purely diffraction phenomena.

As there are lands and seas on Mars, there are presumably rivers. We may safely conclude also that when seen under ordinary conditions the rivers would look dark on the light red background of the Martian continents. The dark streaks are then presumably rivers. We need not find any difficulty in the great breadth of the dark streaks as compared with the merely linear character, which we should recognize if we could see them as they actually are. No telescope ever made by man, or likely to be ever made, could *define* a river on Mars, even were such a river twenty miles wide; and we may be certain that no such rivers as our largest terrestrial rivers exist on Mars, which is but a miniature world.

But if at any time there were cloud or mist along the rivers of Mars, they would be changed from dark streaks of exceeding fineness (could they only be seen as they actually are) to streaks not less delicate, but of silvery whiteness. The diffraction image of one of these streaks, or what would actually be seen in the telescope, would be a bright streak bordered by a dark streak on either side; or in so small and difficult an object as the disk of Mars the observer would see just such double dark streaks as Schiaparelli has observed.

This interpretation would make the doubling of the canals depend in part on seasonal changes in Mars. Schiaparelli has, in fact, recently announced that the phenomenon appears and disappears "in a period depending on the Martian seasons," commencing to show itself at the beginning of the Martian spring. "The greater number of cases appear," he says, "in the second month after the vernal equinox of Mars." After this the phenomenon of duplication gradually disappears, until hardly any traces of it remain near the time of Martian midsummer.

Thus interpreted, Schiaparelli's observations by no means lose their interest or value. On the contrary, what they lose in the marvellous and bizarre, they more than gain in the suggestively interesting. The duplication of the dark streaks proves, what might before have been doubtful, that these really indicate the course of Martian rivers. And further, we learn that the atmospheric and meteorological conditions on Mars are such that in spring the rivers are often clothed in mist; or rather (probably) that the mist, which till the spring had covered large parts of the continents, retreats everywhere except along the rivers, which would thus appear as bright threads upon the ruddy continents of Mars, could any telescope show them as they really are. As spring advances, the mists melt away over the rivers also, and then for a while

> "the planet
> Rolls in the crimson summer of its year;"

or, to be more precise, the hemisphere over which summer is in progress is free (during most of the Martian day) from cloud or fog. That hemisphere forms at such times the greater part of the disk of Mars as we see it, the other being turned from us, even as it is turned from the sun, so that we see much less of it, and what we do see is lost in the mist and haze of the Martian winter.

BABYLONIAN CEMETERIES.

How the ancient Babylonians and Assyrians disposed of their dead is a question that has for some time perplexed and tried the ingenuity of scholars. Both Babylonians and Assyrians held the belief in a life hereafter, and from the cuneiform literature we know that great importance was attached among them to a proper burial, since upon the observance of the prescribed funeral rites the future welfare of the departed depended. "May he have no grave!" was the direst curse that could be pronounced over an enemy. No grave, no paradise, was the common notion in those days. Disturbance of the dead was far more than sacrilege, for it meant endless tortures, not to the ruthless destroyer, but to the unfortunate and helpless spirit doomed henceforth to flit about without rest in a region of gloom and darkness. The cruel Assyrian kings, accordingly, not satisfied with revenging themselves upon their opponents in this world, pursued them even after death, and by disinterring their bones and exposing them to decay under the rays of the sun, inflicted a punishment, upon those who dared to oppose a resistance to the advance of the Assyrian power, held to be more terrible than death. In view of this it was thought rather strange that no traces of graves should as yet have been discovered underneath the mounds of northern Mesopotamia which cover the sites of Assyrian cities. While in Egypt the richest explorations have been those of tombs, and from pictorial representations found in this region we learn more of the way in which the dwellers of the Nile pictured the future world to themselves than of their habits and fortunes in this one, in Assyria it is just the reverse. Temples and palaces have been found, but no royal sepulchres; and the sculptured scenes lining the walls of the Assyrian palaces deal almost exclusively with the world of reality, illustrating generally events in the campaigns and private life of the kings. In southern Mesopotamia, the seat of the Babylonian Empire, things were somewhat different. Here, in addition to temples, numerous graves were found, as many as thirty years ago, by Taylor and Loftus, in mounds at Mugheir and Warka, but besides the insufficiency of the data furnished by them, the antiquity of these graves has recently been called into question by competent authorities, and there are certainly some reasons for doubting whether what has been found in them dates from a period much earlier than the Parthian kingdom.

Recent excavations carried on in Babylonia by a German expedition which the Berlin Museum was enabled to send out through the munificence of a Berlin merchant, Commerzienrath L. Simon, have cast a new and rather unexpected light upon the funeral customs of the ancient Babylonians. The triangle formed by the Euphrates, Tigris, and the Schatt-el-Häi abounds in mounds which from a distance have all the appearance of natural hills. Among these there were two, Surghul and El-Hibba, at some distance from one another, and lying to the northeast of Schatra, that by their unusual size attracted the attention of the exploring party. Having been singled out for excavation, spades and pickaxes were busy for several months digging trenches at various points and removing the thick crusts of sand and rubbish which had formed in the course of many ages. But instead of finding here the ruins of ancient cities once occupied by the living, these mounds proved to be two vast cities set apart for the dead. El-Hibba contained no large temples and extensive palaces, but long rows of small houses, each having a few rooms, that were filled with the charred and half-burnt remains of men, women, and children, ashes and bones in jars; and in addition to this, ornaments of various kinds, weapons, vases, lamps, kitchen utensils, drinking vessels, and remnants of food, apparently dates and corn. The same was the case at Surghul, only that here almost all traces of the little houses which probably once existed had disappeared.

This important discovery has revealed the significant fact that cremation was a common and indeed the general practice in ancient Babylonia, and thanks to the imperfect destruction of the bodies we are in a position to trace the various steps in this ceremony. Whether in order to facilitate the process or for humane reasons, it appears that the corpse was prepared for burning by being wrapped in a mattress of reeds, and then, after being placed on a broad terrace, an enclosure of bricks was formed around the body. By the side of the dead there were deposited articles supposed to be particularly dear to him. The warrior retained his weapons, the woman her jewelry, and the child its toys. The whole mass was thereupon covered with a thin layer of clay, and fire applied to it. Mr. Koldewey, a member of the staff, is of the opinion that the fire was not allowed to burn itself out, but extinguished before it finished its work; and by way of explanation for this theory offers the conjecture that the act of burning had degenerated in the course of time into a symbol, a form, rather than a serious practice. But this is very unlikely, and it is far more probable that the state of preservation in which some of the bodies and the articles were found is due to unavoidable defects in the nature of the cremating process employed. Once kindled, the fire was allowed to have its course, but if it died out before completely destroying the body, which no doubt happened very often, it was not rekindled, and what was left over was piously preserved from further destruction. According to the nature of the relics, they were collected together into a jar, which was stuck into the ground, or the skeleton was covered with an oval-shaped terra-cotta dish. Not all were so fortunate as to obtain a final resting-place in the little houses which were laid out in regularly formed avenues. These houses corresponded to the family vaults in our modern cemeteries, and it was only the wealthy and the distinguished who enjoyed the privilege of occupying them.

The Babylonians believed, with all nations of antiquity, that the dead had the same needs in the future world as during their sojourn on earth. Death was in no sense an interruption, but a continuation of life under another form, and the traces of food in these old Babylonian cemeteries show that it was the custom in this region, as among the Hindoos, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, to place the required nourishment on the graves of the departed, though it is likely that the rites, from being at first carried out with the utmost seriousness, became in time an act of piety toward the dead, much the same as we deposit flowers on the graves of those who are dear to us. A curious survival of this ancient custom is to be found among the orthodox Jews, who on the day of the funeral place an egg, with salt and oil, by the side of the corpse. At present the ceremony has, of course, a purely symbolical significance, but it is evident that the original purpose of these articles was to serve as food for the deceased. To this day Russians piously throw pieces of bread on the graves of friends and relatives, and one is strongly inclined to suspect that the less commendable Russian custom—so graphically described in one of Tourguénief's novels—of combining a jolly repast with a funeral owes its origin to a perversion, by no means uncommon, of this same rite, by which the food, instead of being offered to the dead, came to be consumed by the living.

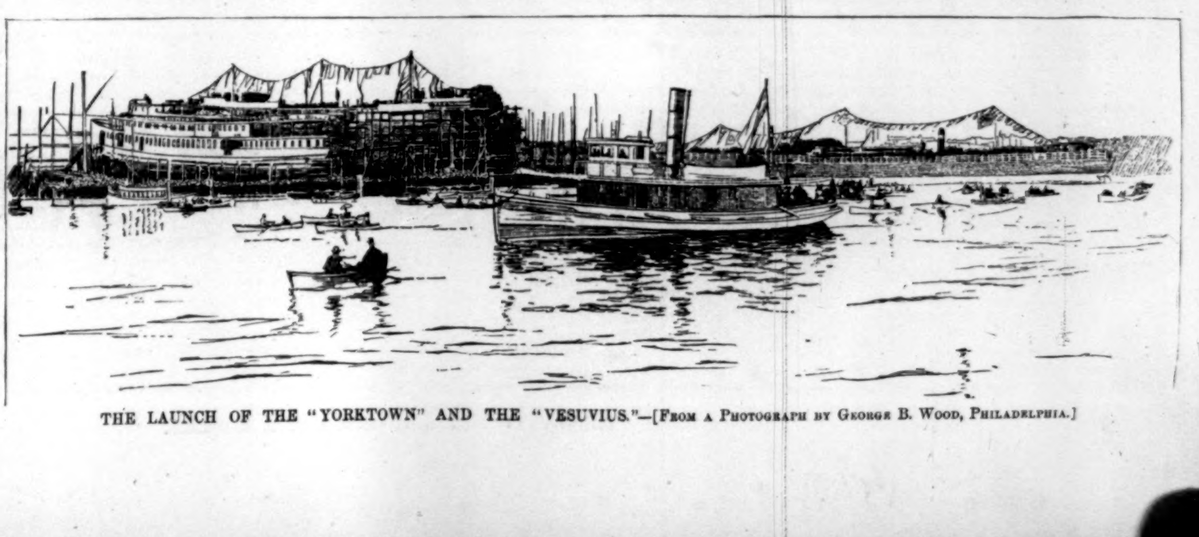
The large area covered by these cemeteries is worthy of remark. Surghul measures about 12,000 square feet, and El-Hibba 15,000, and it is clear from this that they must have served for entire districts. Nor is it at all unlikely that Surghul and El-Hibba are only parts of a vast necropolis—like those at Memphis and Thebes—extending over a locality that for some reason was regarded as sacred to the dead, and to which bodies were brought from all parts of the empire. The Egyptians, we know, conveyed their dead hundreds of miles down the Nile in order to inter them in the holy ground of Memphis or Thebes. The story of Jacob's burial, in the Book of Genesis, is a reflection of this custom. To this day thousands of corpses are brought yearly from Persia and elsewhere to Nedjef (near Kufa) of Arabs who desire to rest in the ground consecrated by the blood of the murdered Ali.

"YORKTOWN" AND "VESUVIUS."

On the 28th of April the first two of the vessels planned and built under the administration of Secretary Whitney were launched from Cramp's yard, at Philadelphia. The day was fine; a large party of gentlemen and ladies from Washington witnessed the launch; throngs of the towns-people occupied all available points. With the traditional ceremony of breaking the bottle of wine against the receding stem, the *Yorktown* received her name from Miss Eleanor, daughter of Congressman Breckinridge, of Kentucky, and the *Vesuvius* hers, a few minutes later, from Miss Nellie, daughter of Senator Don Cameron, of Pennsylvania. The vessels slid into the water amid the hubbub of steam-whistles and bells, with the multitude observing, and the guns of the *Despatch* saluting.

The *Yorktown*, an unarmored steel gun-boat of 1700 tons displacement, has a length of 226 feet, a draught of 13 forward and 15 aft, and a beam of 36. She has twin-screw engines, of the triple expansion type, in separate compartments, aggregating 2200 horse-power with natural and 3300 with forced draught, which last will probably give her a maximum of 17 knots, and an average of 16. Her coal capacity is 400 tons, and the bunkers help protect the boilers and machinery against hostile shot. She has also a curved or turtle-back protective steel deck three-eighths of an inch thick, with its top at the water-line. At 16 knots she could steam 6½ days, making 2800 miles; at 12 knots, 20 days and 5750 miles; at 8 knots, 62 days and 12,000 miles. Rigged as a three-masted schooner, she spreads 6300 square feet of sail, so as to economize coal in ordinary cruising. She has plenty of water-tight compartments, and two electric search-lights. Her main battery consists of six high-powered steel 6-inch breech-loading rifles, firing a projectile of 100 pounds with a powder charge of 50. Two guns are mounted forward, two aft, and two amidships, all protected by steel shields three inches thick. These guns can pierce eight inches of steel-faced armor at 1000 yards. The secondary battery consists of eight rapid-fire machine-guns, and there is an outfit of eight torpedo tubes. The steel covering tower for the captain and helmsman is two inches thick. Although amongst the minor cruising ships of the new steel fleet, the *Yorktown* will have a creditable speed and battery power for her displacement. She and her sister ships the *Bennington* and *Concord*, building at Roach's yard, will cost less than half a million each, exclusive of guns, and will be handy and useful both in peace and war.

The *Vesuvius* is designed to throw from three fixed tubes, by the force of compressed air, at intervals of less than two minutes each, shells containing 600 pounds of explosive gelatine and dynamite, to ranges up to a mile. Here, then, is a new and extraordinary auxiliary for harbor defence. The *Vesuvius* has a length between perpendiculars of 246 feet, a breadth of 26, a mean draught of 9. Her engines are twin screw, triple expansion, developing 3200 horse-power, which should give her a speed of 20 knots. She has no sail or spars. Her three dynamite guns, or torpedo tubes, are built side by side into the ship, at an angle of 16 degrees, and being each 54 feet long, project a little above the deck while extending nearly to the keel. They are aimed by turning the ship. The sum of this memorable launch is one vessel of a well-known and approved type, adopted from the best British models, and one novel craft whose performances will be watched with the highest interest.

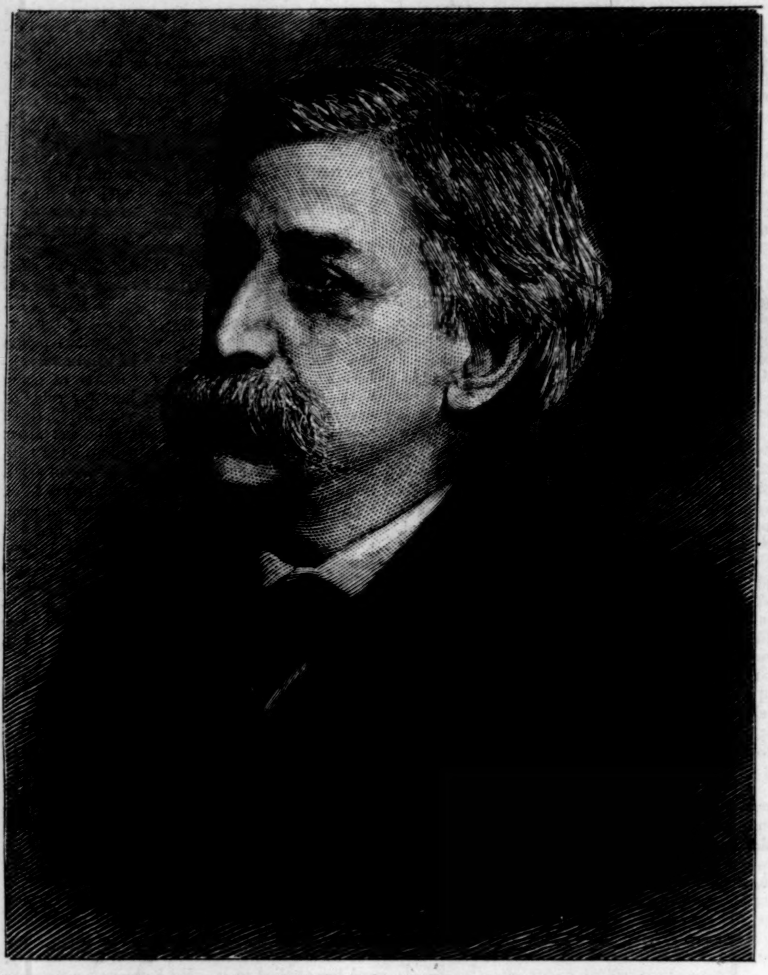


THE LAUNCH OF THE "YORKTOWN" AND THE "VESUVIUS."—[From a Photograph by George B. Wood, Philadelphia.]

MELVILLE WESTON FULLER.

It is a large country which can conceal a future Chief-Justice in one corner of it so effectually as Mr. Fuller was concealed in Chicago. Already the name seems familiar; and yet in the East it was wholly strange no longer ago than last Monday, when President Cleveland sent the nomination to the Senate. Since then, no one, Republican or Democrat, has mentioned the name except to praise its owner. Even opposition Senators have declared their intention to vote favorably when the question of confirmation arises.

If there is anything in heredity, Mr. Fuller could not help being a good lawyer. His father was a lawyer, and so were his father's father and his father's brother. His mother's brother gave him his legal training, and his mother's father was Nathan Weston, Chief-Justice of Maine. It was at Augusta, Maine, that Mr. Fuller was born, on February 11, 1833, and just twenty years later he was graduated at Bowdoin College. He studied law at Harvard, was admitted to the bar in 1856, and for several years creditably filled inconspicuous positions. He edited the *Age*, was elected Alderman, and served as City Attorney. Aspiring to a broader field of work, he sought his fortune in Chicago. Not even that wonder among youthful cities has thriven more surprisingly in the single generation which has gone by since the successor of Waite began his life-work there. Legal triumphs are not of a sort to be made interesting by cataloguing them. Suffice it to say that the keenness of Mr. Fuller's mind, the solidity and variety of his acquirements, and the persuasiveness of his diction were at once recognized and rewarded by a professional income ranging for years at about $30,000 annually. A peculiarity of practice in the West is the variety of subjects embraced by it. Mr. Fuller goes to the bench with probably a wider experience of all branches of the law than has been enjoyed at the bar by any member of the Court. He has had a better preliminary training than most of his predecessors.



MELVILLE W. FULLER, THE NOMINEE FOR CHIEF-JUSTICE OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT.—From a Photograph by Mosher, Chicago.

During all his maturity Mr. Fuller has been a politician, and yet seldom has he filled public office. So long ago as 1856 he was active in the Presidential campaign in that year, and in 1860 he delivered a memorable address on the occasion of the reception of his friend Stephen A. Douglas by the citizens of Chicago. Four times—in 1864, '72, '76, and '80—he has been a delegate to Democratic National Conventions. The sort of Democrat he is can best be gathered by the sort of Democrats he opposed himself to. In 1884 he was defeated as delegate by "Joe" Mackin, now in the penitentiary for methods like those by which he "downed" Mr. Fuller. In 1861 Mr. Fuller assisted in revising the Constitution of Illinois, and in 1862 he was elected to the Legislature from a Republican district. Thus he has never shunned a citizen's duties, and yet he has fed as little as possible at the public crib. Three times he refused offices tendered by President Cleveland, nor did he seek this one. There are precedents for declining the Chief-Justiceship, but Mr. Fuller will not add to them, although it is certainly true that a lawyer fit for the place makes material sacrifices in accepting it.

In person Mr. Fuller is short and slender, with silvery hair and mustache, an intellectual presence, and agreeable courtesy of address. His present and second wife is the daughter of the banker Coolbaugh, who died by his own hand at the foot of the Douglas monument. Although not fond of formal society, she is a woman of charming manners. She and the eight Misses Fuller will be an unmistakable acquisition to the circles they will enter at Washington.

CAUGHT IN THE ACT.

In Montana, during the winter, Indians suffer greatly from hunger. In Mr. Russell's sketch he shows a band of Crow Indians who have been out on a hunting trip. They are hundreds of miles from the reservation; the supplies furnished by the government have been all consumed, and starvation is staring them in the face. An Indian never takes much food with him when on a hunting trip or when moving camp. The poor scrubby cayuses are scarcely able to carry the bucks or their packs, but it is out of the question for a Montana Indian to walk. Hunting becomes impossible, for the horses cannot track deer or antelope through the deep snow.

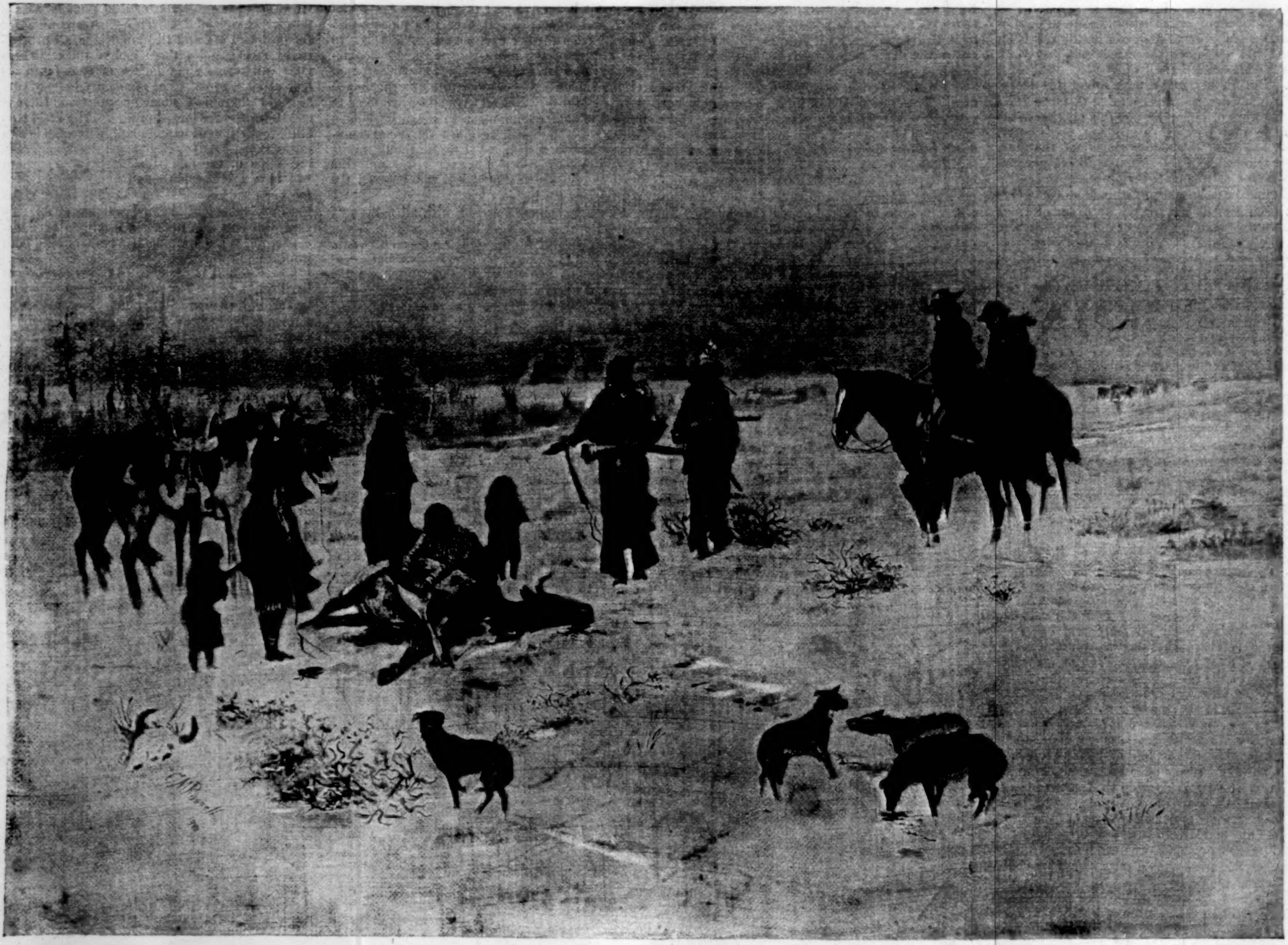
The two bucks have driven in a bunch of range cattle, and one of them has shot a cow. After killing an animal, the bucks leave it to the squaws, who do the skinning and dressing. Not much dressing is necessary, for entrails, offal, and everything else are acceptable to an Indian.

The two cow-boys have been out riding "a line," and having heard the shot, have ridden up to the place from whence came the sound. In winter very little work is done on the range. An outfit usually keeps two or three men, who ride between different points, so as to keep the cattle from drifting too far away from their range. This is called "riding a line."

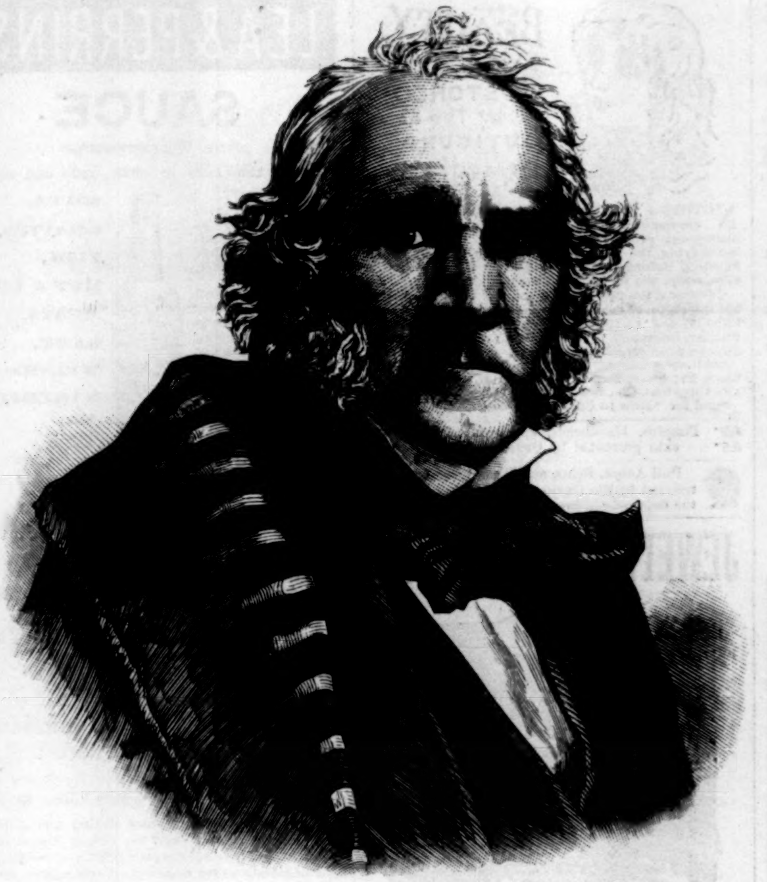
Hunger has made the Indians desperate. They know they are liable to arrest and imprisonment, but nothing that the soldiers or cattle-men can do has any terrors for them now. They must eat, or die of starvation. The tall buck is making the sign of hunger, at the same time pointing to the squaws and children. Nearly all cow-boys and ranchmen are familiar with the sign language used by the North American Indians.

The cow-boys understand the situation at once. They have no love for an Indian, but in this instance they are moved to pity for the starving Indians. One cow out of a big herd will never be missed. The wealthy "cow-man," who is probably spending the winter in New York or Chicago, will be none the wiser, and but few living on the vast reservation will be aware of this small loss.

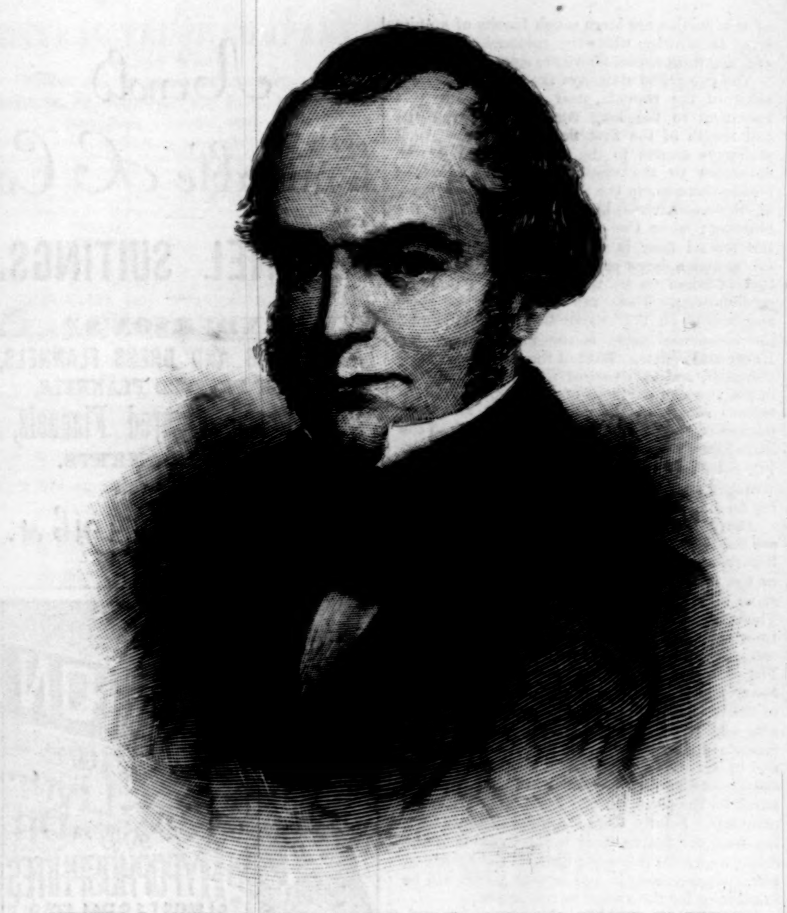
Mr. Russell, the artist, has sketched a subject with which he is entirely familiar. The starving Indians, with their savage faces, are even more grim from hunger. The gaunt, sore-backed horses are humped by the cold. There are the scurvy dogs that, wolf-like, are snarling as they scent the blood-drops in the snow. Mr. Russell has caught the exact dreariness of it all—the long stretches of the plain, that mournful aspect of a winter scene in Montana. Any one acquainted with frontier life will at once appreciate the truthfulness of the picture.



"CAUGHT IN THE ACT."—Drawn by C. M. Russell.



GENERAL SAM HOUSTON, GOVERNOR OF TEXAS AT THE OUTBREAK OF THE CIVIL WAR.



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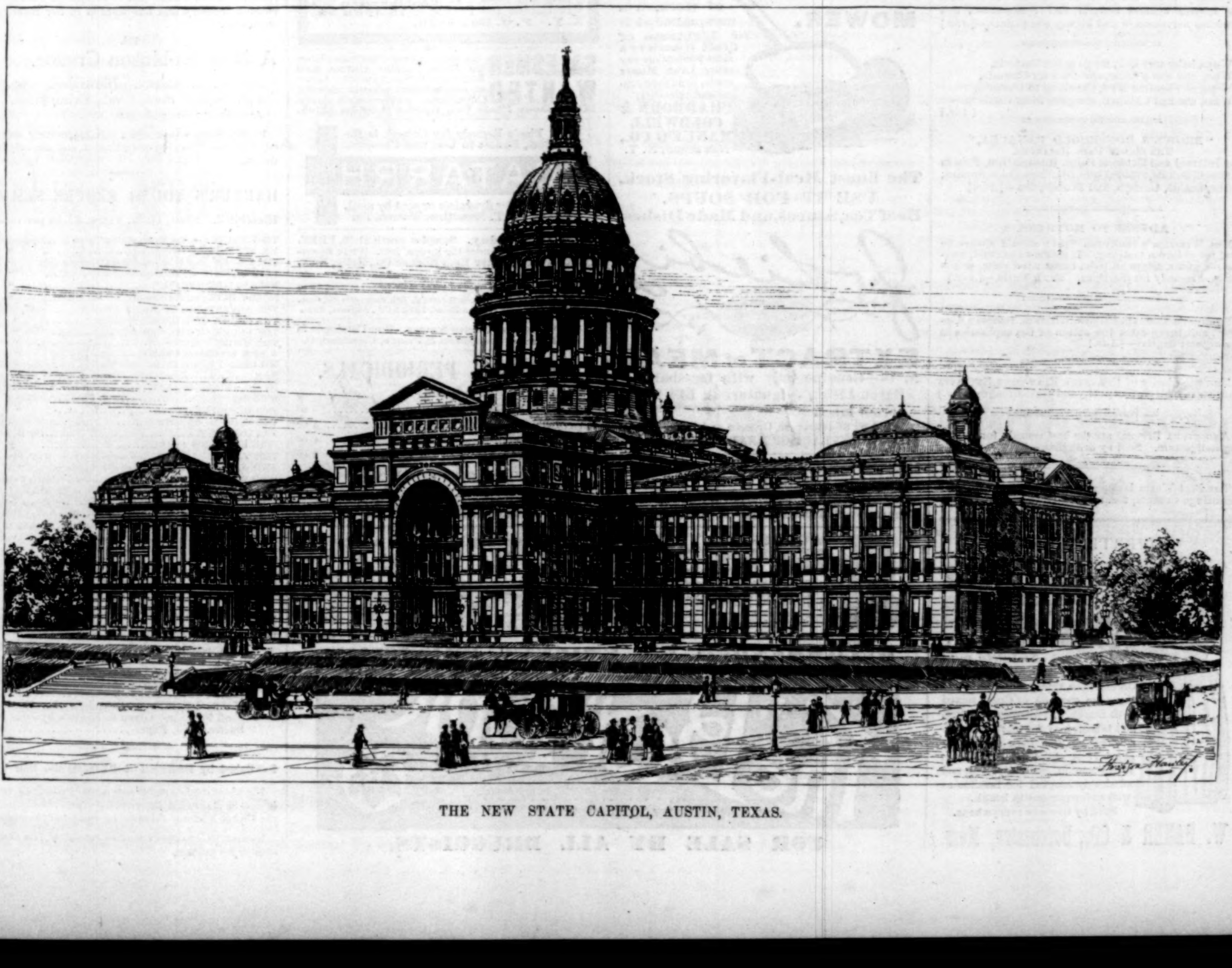
THE NEW CAPITOL OF TEXAS

AUSTIN is situated on the left bank of the Colorado River, on the Austin branch of the Houston and Texas Railroad, at a point where this tortuous river runs like a thread of silver through a landscape variegated with patches of prairie, cedar-crowned hills, and low mountains in the blue distance to the west. The new Texas Capitol, of which Austin is the seat, is one of the finest red granite buildings in the world. The foundation was laid in 1884, and during the last year 300 men have been constantly employed on the last stages of the great work. The builders were a syndicate composed of the Messrs. FARWELL of Chicago and others; and it is estimated that from first to last it has expended in the construction of the building about $4,000,000, the compensation on the part of the State consisting of 3,000,000 acres of land—nine counties—situated in the "Panhandle" region.

The architecture of this magnificent new State-house is mainly of the Doric order. Its ground plan approximately resembles the Greek cross, with a rotunda and dome at the intersection of the corridors. Its front measures 562 feet from east to west, with a depth of 287 feet, and it covers 2¼ acres of ground. The altitude from the base-line of the building to the large glass star on top of the bronze statue of Liberty surmounting the dome lantern is 311 feet. The exterior is constructed of rough longitudinal blocks of granite, laid horizontally, but all the margins are beautifully dressed, and on the second and third stories there is considerable rock face work, through which are distributed a series of stately pilasters to the number of 176, covering the whole circuit of the building on these stories. All the broad corridors are laid in encaustic tiling of various patterns and attractive designs. The great rotunda is 65 feet in diameter, and encircled by a balcony five feet deep, connecting with the second, third, and fourth floors. The basement comprises 63 rooms, in which the records of the State and other things will be preserved. On the first floor are the Executive offices, while the second is set apart for the Legislative and the third for the Judicial departments of the State government. The Senate-Chamber, 94 by 70 feet, and the Hall of Representatives, 94 by 96 feet, are in keeping with the grandeur of the exterior. These great halls are both open through to the ceiling of the second floor above, and are completely encircled by galleries, the light being admitted through two tiers of windows and a ceiling of cut stained plate glass, above which are the immense skylights of the exterior roof.

The entire building will be lit by gas and electricity, and heated throughout by steam from a boiler-house situated a short distance to the east of the Capitol grounds, and connected by a tunnel with the main building. Passenger and freight elevators of the most approved style are provided for in the building.

The distinctive feature of the main front entrance, facing south, is the triumphal arch that spans this entrance at a height of seventy-two feet, underneath which, in the vestibule of the first floor, supporting a granite balcony, stand two superb columns, their bases and shafts of polished granite, with bands and caps of polished black and white marbles. In striking contrast with this ornate entrance is the massive granite portico that dignifies the entrance on the opposite or north side of the building, facing University Hill. The supports of the first story



THE NEW STATE CAPITOL, AUSTIN, TEXAS.

of this portico are large rough blocks of granite lying lengthwise, while the columns of the second and third stories above are smoothly dressed.

The two grand stairways are situated on both sides of the rotunda, near its east and west entrances to the long corridors that run the full length of the first floor; and these grand stairways ascend to the second floor, near the entrances to the vestibules leading into the Senate-Chamber in the east flank, and the House of Representatives in the west flank of the building; while the entire north projection on the second floor is occupied by the State Library, and a large portion of the south projection is taken up by the Governor's public reception-room. These are the four grand state apartments on the second floor, and adjoining the last-named room is the Post-office of the House and Senate. West of the Representatives' Chamber, and also east of the Senate-Chamber, in the two end pavilions of the building, are numerous rooms for the officers, clerks, and committees of the Legislature, and opening into the State Library is a well-furnished portrait gallery. The State Library is 68 by 124 feet, and is also arranged like the House and Senate for procuring an ample supply of natural light.

Above the State Library, on the third floor, are the Supreme and Appellate court-rooms, law library, attorneys' rooms, and clerks' offices, and in the front projection of the building, on the same floor, are the judges' consultation rooms. There are in the entire building 256 apartments, twenty-three of these being on the fourth or central story, and not designated for any special use. The centre of the rotunda on the first floor is of heavy plated glass, to give light to that portion of the basement directly underneath. There are also additional balconies in the interior of the rotunda above the fourth floor of the building, and in the interior crown of the dome there is a canopy or diaphragm, circular in form, to be prepared for the reception of allegorical or historical paintings. Finally, there is a flight of stairs leading from the fourth story to the exterior of the dome, and from this great altitude the variety of picturesque scenery in and around Austin will be interesting for the visitor to contemplate.

The new Capitol, which is in every way a credit to the enterprise and taste of the people of the Lone Star State, is to be dedicated May 14th–19th, Governor Ross having as early as February sent out invitations to distinguished people all over the United States to be present.

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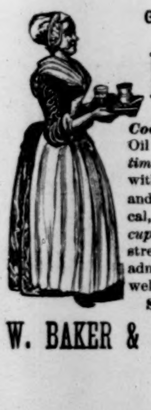

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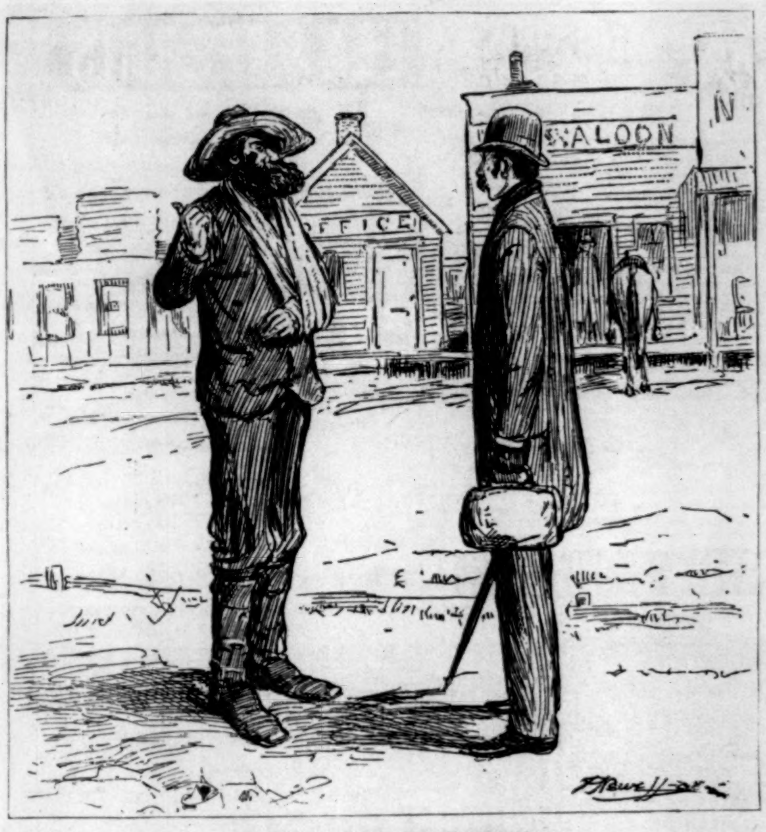

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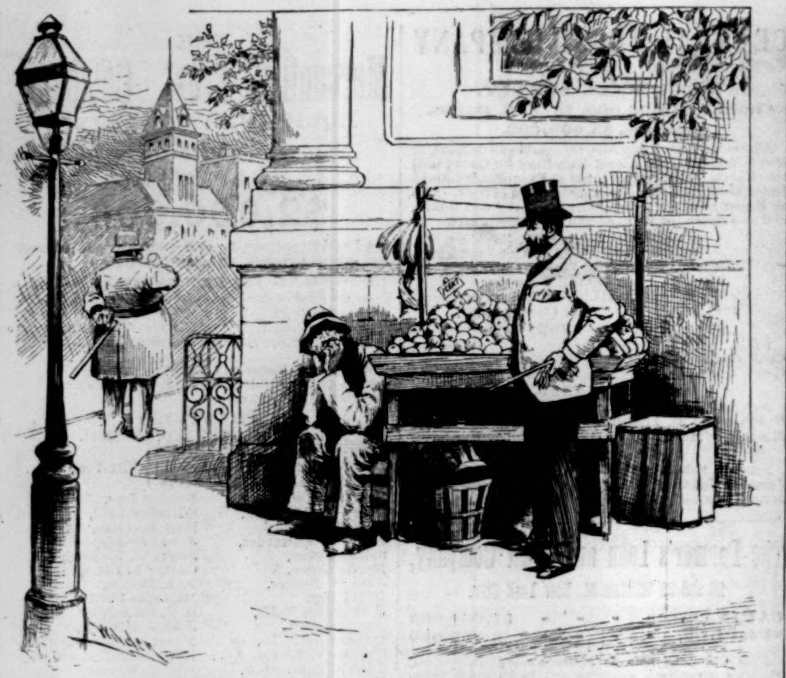

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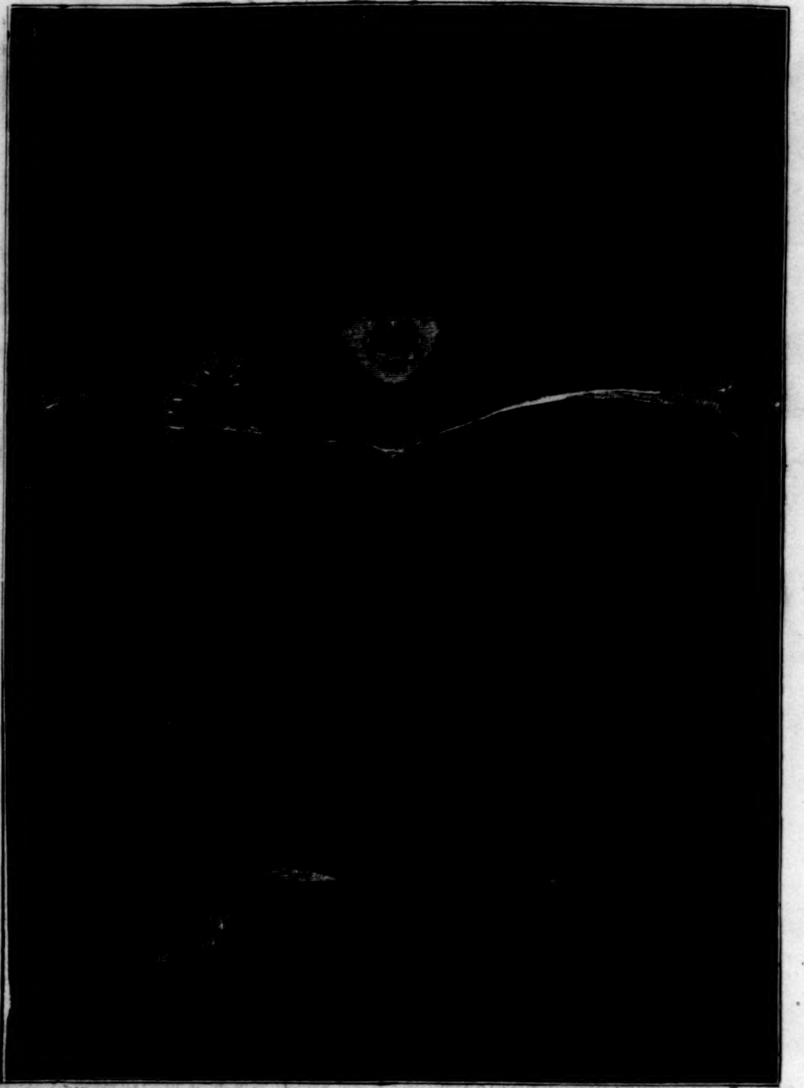

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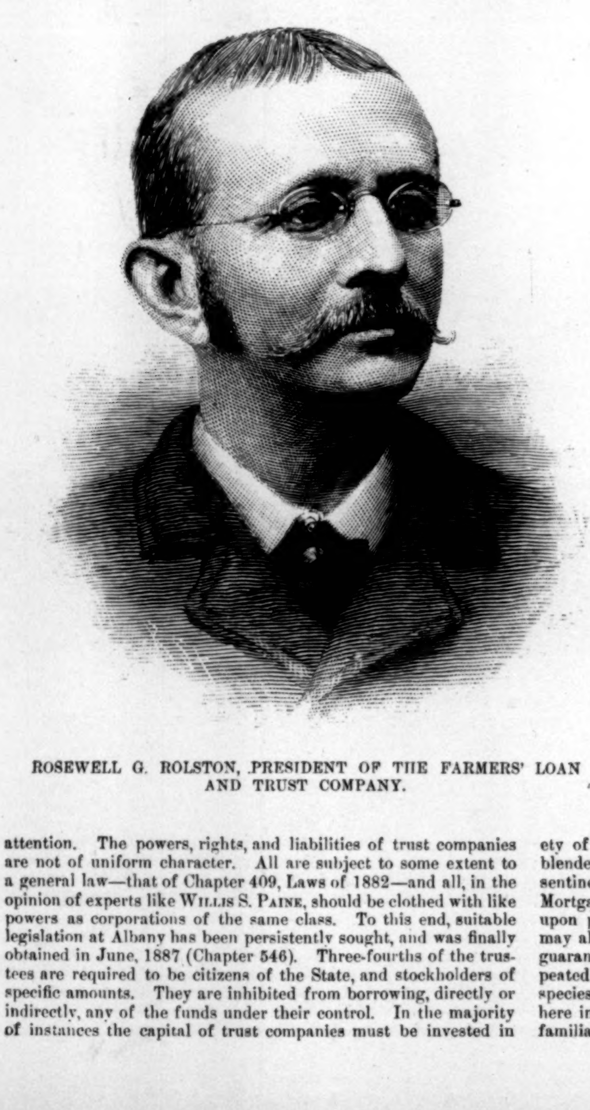
THE NEW YORK TRUST COMPANIES.

By RICHARD WHEATLEY.

OF the chartered corporations known as trust companies doing business in the State of New York on the 1st of January, 1888, there were twenty-one. Sixteen are located in the city of New York, two in Brooklyn, and one in each of the cities of Buffalo, Rochester, and Syracuse. The peculiar character of these institutions is sufficiently indicated by their title. Under statutes enacted by the Legislature of the State they are endowed with all the customary powers of corporations, and are also authorized to receive moneys from individuals, firms, or corporations on trust, and to accumulate the deposits at legal rates of interest. Funds may be committed to their custody by any court having due jurisdiction. Estates of lunatics, idiots, or habitual drunkards enter into their care on conditions established by the appointing power. Other responsibilities of similar nature are confided to them by order of the Supreme Court, or of a surrogate, or of any court of record. Real or personal estate, on trusts created in harmony with State and national law, passes under their hands on agreed stipulations. They accept and execute trusts for married women in respect of their separate property, and act as guardians for infants. Trusts for schools, colleges, eleemosynary institutions, corporations, and individuals are also executed. As agents for the issue, registration, or countersigning of stocks, bonds, or other evidences of debt, they represent any corporation, association, municipality, State, or public authority employing them.

Executors of wills, trustees of estates, guardians of childhood, custodians of deposits, and instruments of incorporated authority, their functions are of such importance to the commonwealth as to demand prime business ability, scientific organization, and wise procedure. How far these requirements are met by directors and officials the reports and historical experiences of each company attest. In the Annual Report of 1888 the Superintendent of the Banking Department publishes the names of all officers, directors, or trustees connected with the trust companies. Among them are those of many-millioned railroad magnates, wealthy bankers, opulent capitalists, princes of commerce, creative manufacturers, distinguished statesmen, skilled legists, and active brokers. But it by no means follows that all belong to the category of first-class business men. Charters have been until recently obtained from the Legislature with far too much ease to admit of that conclusion. The eminent success achieved by several companies naturally provokes emulation. Their number has been enlarged beyond the necessities of the people. "Charters have in some instances been hawked about the streets of New York to be sold to whomsoever might desire to buy." Whatever the reasons may be, it is certain that such associations as the Franklin Loan and Trust Company, Westchester County Trust Company, Bankers' Life Insurance and Trust Company, Mutual Trust Institution, etc., etc., although duly chartered, have not embarked in active operations. Gifted, disciplined, conservative men, managers who manage and directors who direct, are imperatively needed in fiduciary relations.

Scientific organization is needful to largest efficiency. Perfection in this regard is not one of the claims of existing companies. Their organization is the product of similar and yet differing projects, vicissitudes, and adaptations. Aims are permanent, but modes of operation vary with the changing conditions of the times. Generic resemblances and specific diversities challenge attention. The powers, rights, and liabilities of trust companies are not of uniform character. All are subject to some extent to a general law—that of Chapter 409, Laws of 1882—and all, in the opinion of experts like **Willis S. Paine**, should be clothed with like powers as corporations of the same class. To this end, suitable legislation at Albany has been persistently sought, and was finally obtained in June, 1887 (Chapter 546). Three-fourths of the trustees are required to be citizens of the State, and stockholders of specific amounts. They are inhibited from borrowing, directly or indirectly, any of the funds under their control. In the majority of instances the capital of trust companies must be invested in bonds and mortgages on unincumbered real estate situate within the State, and worth twice the amount loaned thereon, or in the public stocks of the United States, the State of New York, or of individual States, or in the obligations of any county, city, town, or village of the State. Premiums, profits, and deposits may be invested in the same classes of securities, or in such other as the trustees may deem proper. Twenty-five thousand dollars is the usual limit of investment in the stock of any private incorporated company.



ROSEWELL G. ROLSTON, PRESIDENT OF THE FARMERS' LOAN AND TRUST COMPANY.

Forecast and wisdom in the administration of corporate affairs are essential to permanent success. The twenty-one companies, some of whom are in process of liquidation, are the sole survivors of fifty-two loan and trust corporations organized under special statutes since February 28, 1822, when the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company of New York received its charter. Undeterred by these failures, the enterprising and adventurous are eager to assume the burdens under which they broke down. Eight of the twenty-one now existent have been incorporated since 1880. Two, not as yet in active business, namely, the Citizens' Loan Agency and Guarantee Company of New York, and the State Loan and Trust Company of Brooklyn, were chartered in 1885. The consequences of bankruptcy to stockholders in all cases are wholly unpleasing, inasmuch as all investments are effected at their risk, and for all losses their capital and property are absolutely liable. Individually, responsibility is commensurate with the magnitude of the holding, either at the par or market value. Trustees are liable in the same manner and to the same extent that trustees are responsible in law or equity for all losses which the capital stock is not sufficient to satisfy.

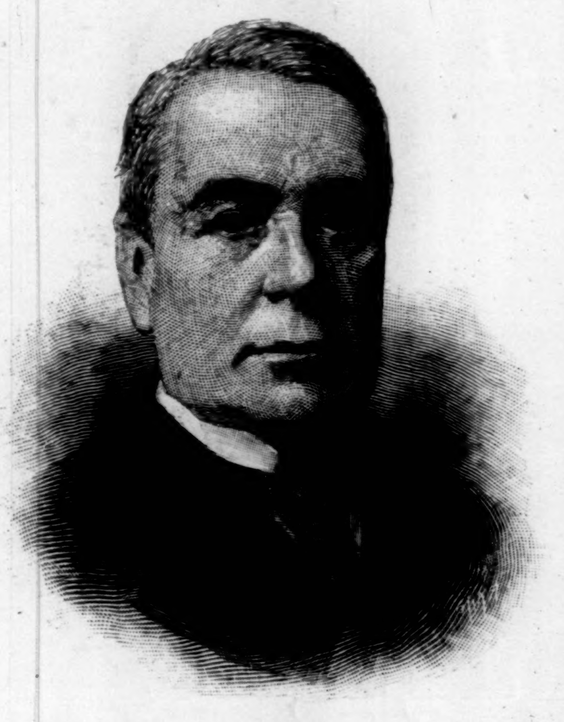
Nor are shrewdness and sound judgment less needed in the interests of depositors and beneficiaries. Although all debts due to the latter are made preferred claims in case of failure, the uncertainties and anxieties created by the failure in the minds of donors and *cestui que trusts* are conducive neither to health, usefulness, nor felicity. Every breakdown involves impairment of public confidence and checks the healthful growth of the body politic.

In 1874, under these convictions, all the trust, loan, mortgage, security, and guaranty or indemnity associations were placed under the supervision of the Superintendent of the Banking Department. To him each must present a full written report of its condition and affairs on the last business day of June and December in each year, and each report must be verified by the oath of such corporate officers as the Superintendent may designate. He may also call for special reports at any time. Either in person or by competent proxy, the Superintendent is required to examine each company annually, and to charge the expense to the company examined. His honest certificate of probity, skill, and correctness is, and ought to be, worth its cost. The examiner has power to compel the attendance of witnesses, to administer oaths, and to enforce the production of books and papers. In the scope of inquiry are included the condition and resources of the corporation, the method of conducting its affairs, the action of its directors or trustees, the investment of its funds, the prudence and safety of its management, the security afforded to those by whom its engagements are held, and the degree to which administration has conformed to the demands of law and charter. Such supervision ought to be of great service, because of the acknowledged fact that the worth of securities is measured by the application of good moral principles on the part of those by whom they are manipulated, and on whom they are obligatory. Violation of law or charter, or unsafe and unauthorized management, obliges the Superintendent to direct discontinuance of what is objectionable, and in case of refusal, or of inexpediency that any particular company should continue in business, to communicate the facts to the Attorney-General, whose subsequent action is governed by the facts and circumstances in question.

Every company, whether domestic or foreign, receiving trust deposits of money in New York is required to transfer to the Superintendent of the Banking Department registered public stocks, either of the United States, the State, or of any incorporated city in the State, or bonds and mortgages on property in the State of twice their value, to the amount of ten per cent. of its paid-up capital; but in no case can such assignment be legally less than $50,000. Registered in his name officially, the Superintendent holds them in trust as security for the depositors with and creditors of the corporation, and eventually disposes of them under the order of any court of competent jurisdiction.

Into the history of all the experiences of fraud, fallibility, and change lying behind these legal provisions it would be interesting to enter, as also into that of the statute which limits the amount of money on deposit or loan—exclusive of court deposits—and also of outstanding loans at any one period, within ten times the paid-up capital and surplus. Assessed in due proportion to defray the expenses of the Banking Department, authorized to increase or diminish capital to the minimum of $100,000, annually reported as to their condition by the Superintendent to the Legislature, and held to maintain adequate insurance on assigned property, there are yet additional demands that, in the judgment of accomplished legists, should be made of the trust companies. Appellations should be distinctive, names and plans public, usefulness of proposed corporations apparent, capital paid in cash, legality of by-laws ascertained, statements of assets verified by oath, and liability to the penalties of perjury certain.

While all the trust companies have defined powers and privileges in common, others have chartered rights peculiar to themselves. In these cases variety of functions is included. Those of the money-lender are blended with the banker's, and the duties of a safe-deposit sentinel are united with the activities of the salaried manager. Mortgage companies may loan money on bonds and mortgages upon property within the United States, or purchase them, and may also issue and sell bonds secured by such obligations, and guarantee the payment of principal and interest. Large and repeated has been the boasting of the safety with which this species of business is done. Whatever of truthfulness may inhere in it, it is certain that exhaustive topographical knowledge, familiarity with county and other records, shrewd sagacity, sterling probity, and co-operation of local laws are essential to success. The absence of one or more of these factors is not unattended by annoyance and disaster; where all are present, investments may be as advantageous to the lender as they are profitable to the borrower. They powerfully aid in the development of internal resources. One of these corporations—the United States Mortgage Company—is chiefly the creation of foreign capitalists, who, after the war for the preservation of our national Union, invested one of their five millions of subscribed capital in bonds and mortgages on real estate in Western cities. Six per cent. debenture bonds, secured by such investments, were then issued. Subsequent operations enlarged the amount. On December 21, 1886, bonds of the par value of £322,400 were in the hands of European holders. Decline of interest rates to the foreign level has so contracted the margin of profit that further applications for loans are rejected. In the course of the next two years the company expects to pay off all its outstanding bonds and to retire from business. The Manhattan Trust, formerly the Real Estate Trust, Company of New York City is also in a state of inactive animation, is not receiving deposits of money, was suffering from deficiency of assets to the extent of $156,170 on July 1, 1883, and is said to be contemplating reorganization for loan and trust purposes. The Equitable Trust Company of New London, Connecticut, is included in the same category. Doing business in New York, it is subject to the laws of the State, but does not delight in dividends nor lucrative transactions, for the reason that all are painfully absent. Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and Michigan are the principal areas of investment on which its debentures were issued. Changes of trade routes, over-appraisement of mortgage bases, and consequent shrinkage of market values, have forced it into liquidation. On December 22, 1886, $2,902,500 of six per cent. and $212,500 of five per cent. bonds were among its outstanding obligations. Deficiency of assets reached the sum of $366,144 97. Corporations of this class, even when clothed with unexercised fiduciary powers, do not properly belong to the list of trust companies.



JOHN A. STEWART, PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES TRUST COMPANY.

One of the most prominent of the real estate class was organized not only to accommodate citizens with loans on the security of their property, but also to insure their buildings and effects from loss by fire, to issue policies of life-insurance, and to grant annuities. This is the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, the first-born of a numerous and, on the whole, delicate family, which in the struggle for survival has been legislatively modified no less than seven different times. Accommodation to modern environment appears to be quite satisfactory. Insurance and annuity aspirations are completely buried under the immense mass of trust and loan activities. Approved securities, presented by trustworthy applicants, usually command loans within twenty per cent. of their market value. Presidential decision, warranted by familiar knowledge, is apparently instantaneous. All the president's official actions are carefully reviewed once every week by the executive committee, to whom a detailed report is submitted, and by whom criticisms and suggestions are offered. Loaning of money is one of the principal functions of the modern trust company, and is also one of the firmest supports of stock exchange transactions. Railroad business, too, is enormous. Long lists of coupons of railroad, water, coal, car trust, gas, storage, hotel, ranch and cattle, and manufacturing companies, and of dividends of railway and mining corporations, to be paid at their counters, are published in the daily newspapers.

Other associations, with guaranty and indemnity powers, have the chartered right to guarantee the payment, punctual performance, and collection of promissory notes, bills of exchange, contracts, bonds, accounts, claims, rents, annuities, mortgages, choses in action, evidences of debt, and certificates of property or value, and the titles to property, real or personal. The American Loan and Trust Company, incorporated in 1872 as the United States Loan and Security Company, possesses these in common with ordinary characteristic powers, but does not exercise them to any important extent, if at all. By none of the companies that guarantee securities is undue risk often assumed. If the obligation to be guaranteed be in bond or other form, the judicious practice is to demand a money deposit of sufficient size to increase at compound interest to a sum equal to that of the obligation at maturity. Trust companies give and take—especially take.

The Mutual Trust Company, chartered in 1868 as the Public Exchange, and afterward known as the Mining Trust Company, until the assumption of present title in 1881, is authorized to guarantee the payment of bonds and other obligations, and for that, among other reasons, was obliged, by decision of the Court of Appeals, to submit to report and examination. Other powers of very extraordinary character are conferred by its charter—such as that of establishing and conducting a daily mercantile and financial exchange. That either the wants it was designed to supply do not exist, or are supplied in some other way, is the logical inference from its practical discontinuance of operation, and that without flattering probability of resumption. "He that hateth suretyship is sure," is the maxim of an experienced philosopher. Recognizing its truth, the New York Guaranty and Indemnity Company never did much in justification of its title. Its business was substantially that of a banking institution. Loans were made on bonds and warehouse receipts. Not moribund, but choosing to die, it neither receives deposits nor does new business. The charter is for sale. Since 1875 it has been in liquidation. The original capital of $2,000,000, less $100,000 invested in real estate, together with $2,227,500 as the profits of past transactions, has been returned to shareholders. Guaranty and indemnity, like charity, begin at home.

EDWARD KING, PRESIDENT OF THE UNION TRUST COMPANY.

Some companies, like the Knickerbocker Trust, which in 1884 succeeded the Manhattan Mortgage Company by purchase of its franchise, have safe-deposit, and in one instance savings institution, clauses in their charters. The Knickerbocker, situated on Fifth Avenue, and intended to accommodate wealthy residents in that section of the metropolis, is authorized "to maintain and let for hire vaults, safes, and like receptacles." Another may receive upon storage, deposit, or otherwise, merchandise, bullion, specie, plate, stocks, bonds, promissory notes, certificates and evidences of debt, contracts, or other property. The tendency to differentiation of pursuit, incident to the evolution of society, has, however, almost wholly separated the safe-deposit element from the commercial and fiscal in fiduciary institutions. One of the number which, by the consecutive modifications it has undergone, reminds the observer of the changes which pass upon a batrachian in transition from ovular beginning to embodiment of archetypal ideal, was chartered in 1868 for the scientific construction and use of fire-proof buildings for the storage of merchandise, and for the transportation, insurance, sale on commission, and loan of money thereon. In 1880 the Fire-proof Warehousing Company acquired the title of the Mercantile Trust Company, and with it all the privileges of trustee institutions, of which it is one of the most successful.

Life-insurance and annuity business is only an adjunct in any case. The New York Life Insurance and Trust Company, incorporated in 1830, has only $110,000 in outstanding life-insurance policies. This is sufficient to insure the retention of its charter, and more is neither sought nor desired. Competition with mutual companies is declined. The grant and purchase of annuities—$422,148 54 being reckoned among its liabilities—is another minor portion of its work. Yet the annuity element in trust-company life is likely to be a growing one. In consideration of a certain sum paid by or for the annuitant, he yearly receives an amount whose percentage of the purchase price is graduated by probable distance from the end of pilgrimage.

The guaranty of title to real estate is the conspicuous and absorbing feature of the Title Guaranty and Trust Company, incorporated in 1883 as the German-American Loan and Trust Company of the City of New York. Other corporations enjoy its special powers, but keep them in "innocuous desuetude." It guarantees bonds and mortgages and titles to real estate; makes or purchases all such searches, abstracts, indices, maps, and copies of records as the trustees may direct. For all losses of money occasioned by any defect in its documents, the capital and also the trustees are responsible. Validity of title is essential to ownership. Searches of records are tedious, costly, and uncertain. The German Savings-Bank is said to hold the $100,000 bond of its real-estate lawyer as a safeguard against negligence or error. Deeds and maps, covering the civilized era of Manhattan Island and vicinity, showing its division into farms, subdivision into streets and lots, and enabling those charged with the duty to present a perfect history of each several piece of property, ought to be prepared and accessible. The application of the title guaranty companies for the acceptance of their guaranteed searches and abstracts of title to real estate by the Banking Department of the State was opposed for manifest reasons by corporation lawyers and conveyancers. But Superintendent Paine decided in favor of the former. Local indexing is one of their methods. That of indexing against the names of parties is exceedingly liable to error. The innumerable Smith family is the innocent occasion of defects in many official searches; but as a lot has ordinarily only one designation, it is not so likely to lead the searcher astray. Official searches are preferable to private ones, because of the pecuniary responsibility attaching to them. The keenest caution and ingenuity in investment are demanded of all trustees and banks. Corporate certificates afford the greater security, because including contract to pay for the loss to the mortgagee, but not for the interest or principal of the mortgage.

Transfer agency and registry functions are among the most important and influential of those exercised by the trust companies. Each may be a transfer agent or registrar, or both, for corporations, associations, municipalities, States, and public authorities who issue bonds, certificates of stock, or other evidences of debt. Not infrequently a certificate of the entire number of shares of capital stock belonging to one corporation is deposited with the company. This is accompanied by other certificates, signed in blank by the depositing officials. As shares are sold, the transfer agent records by whom and to whom they are transferred, and fills up and numbers the blank certificates accordingly. As these change hands in the process of events, he records the translation, and fills up and numbers new certificates as required. Old and new are both sent to the registrar, who records the surrender of the old, cancels, and retires them from issue. He also countersigns the new certificates, records, and returns them to the transfer agent. His signature is known at the Stock Exchange, and is necessary to a "good" or valid delivery. All trust companies are bound by the rules of the Stock Exchange, and cannot register additional stock without consent of the Stock List Committee. This precaution, like the division of issuant functions between the transfer agent and the registrar, is designed to prevent unauthorized issues, and has been dictated by woful experience. In the registration of bonds, the date of registry and the name of the reputed owner are inserted. Made payable to bearer they constitute a good delivery, but are estopped from circulation by subsequent registration of the buyer. In the payment of coupons and dividends, all that prevision and genius can devise is adopted to insure punctuality and accuracy. The growth of trust company fiscal business is like that of Jonah's gourd *minus* its perishability. The Central Trust Company alone pays the coupons and dividends of more than a hundred corporations, and transfers or registers for at least fifty or sixty.

The consolidation of railroads, and the consequent merger of indebtedness, together with the foreclosure of mortgages, gives much employment to trust institutions. For mortgages on railroads they are legally empowered to act as trustees. In foreclosing, the conditions recited in the deed guide action. Rigorous adhesion to the usual conditions of a first mortgage commonly places the mortgaged property in the hands of the bondholders, and wipes out all other indebtedness. Junior mortgages and stock are deprived of all value. To prevent these results the scheme of reorganization committees was devised by railway lawyers. Under it all rights existing with reference to the property at the time of insolvency are represented, and in their behalf the property is repurchased. By a new capitalization these rights are readjusted. First-mortgage bondholders receive new bonds representing a first lien, and also certificates or bonds representing accrued interest. Junior mortgages are again recognized by junior liens or preferred stock. Stockholders, on condition of making definite pecuniary advances toward the payment of expenses, or of putting the road in proper condition, receive scrip or stock to represent their interests in it.

This plan has received the approbation of the courts, because it apparently conserves the right of property, and prevents waste and destruction. However this may be, two related things are positive. The first is that the railway corporation emerges from insolvency with larger capitalization than before default, and with little or nothing of construction to balance the increase of fictitious capital. Higher rates of freight and passenger traffic, or vast increase of business, is imperative to make the plan successful. The second certainty about its execution is the access of employment to the trust company. Evidences of indebtedness of all kinds are called in, transferable certificates issued therefor, and when these are surrendered after reorganization, other bonds and certificates, covering the original indebtedness *plus* the inevitable increase, are also issued. Legal as well as clerical services merit compensation, and swell the sources of income to fiduciary corporations.

For the entangled snarls in which corporation clients are sometimes involved, and which the superlative craft of learned legists fails to unravel, the trust companies are not responsible. Decisions of the United States Supreme Court alone can straighten out the intractable material. Thus, on the 3d of January, 1887, the Court of Common Pleas, at Cleveland, Ohio, decided that the first mortgage of $15,000,000 on the "Nickel Plate," or New York, Chicago, and St. Louis Railroad, held by the Central Trust Company of New York, was invalid, because illegal and fraudulent; that the second mortgage of $10,000,000, held by the Union Trust Company of the same city, was valid and lawful; and that, by reason of default in the payment of its interest by the railroad company, the Union Trust Company was entitled to foreclose on its property for the amount of the bonds. This decision was disputed, and a new trial sought before the United States Circuit Court. Thence the controversy may pass to the highest appellate tribunal for final adjudication. Wherever the eventual loss, if any, may fall, it will only bring gain to the trust agents of each class of disputants.

Many of the trust companies are really banks of deposit and discount, and profit richly by this fact. Like the Manhattan Company, generated by the fertile brain of Aaron Burr, and incorporated in 1799, to supply the city of New York with pure water, they are permitted to transact business other than that for which they were ostensibly organized, and that under the liberal provisions of their charters. Some do not receive open and active banking accounts, but, as a special favor, may allow depositors to draw checks against their deposits. Banking business is largely done without any organization as banks. The distinction between them and banks of deposit and discount is not so broad in practice as in theory. In theory the latter, subject to few restrictions, deal in investments of such character as they deem advisable; but the trust companies must have a large capital, which, together with their trust funds, are required to be invested in the best and safest securities. Interest on the latter is a question of wholly secondary consideration; the safety of the principal is of primal importance.

The object held in view in the original chartering of trust companies was the establishment of depositories for trust funds. But such deposits now constitute a small percentage of those committed to their care. General deposits have been solicited and received. The result is a marvellous growth that attracts attention and challenges investigation. In 1875 the aggregate resources of the New York State trust companies amounted to $69,654,948; on the 1st of January, 1888, to $200,087,230 17—not including those of the Mutual Trust Company. In accounting for this wonderful prosperity, the financial value of the title "trust" companies should not be overlooked; neither the fact that committal to their custody by judicial and surrogates' courts of funds belonging to legatees, or claimants, or corporations, or *cestui que* trusts has induced the popular persuasion that they are sounder and safer fiscal institutions, and therefore more deserving of confidence, than those of different characteristics. "If," reports Superintendent Paine, "the rapid increase of trust companies is permitted, there is reason to believe that in time not a State bank of deposit and discount will exist in the metropolis."

Checks on some of the trust companies, by arrangements with banks that hold their balances, and that are members of the Clearing-house, pass through that establishment. This service is rendered by the Fourth National Bank to the American Loan and Trust Company, by the National City Bank to the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, by the First National Bank to the Knickerbocker, the Fourth National Bank to the Mercantile, and the National Bank of Commerce to the Union Trust Company. This system has been adopted by a few of the Trust Companies for the reason that, as a rule, the Trust Companies do not redeem checks drawn upon them by the payment of *cash*, but give you in exchange their own check upon their deposit bank. All do, or may, purchase commercial paper at a discount with part of their deposits, and make loans of money on pledge of securities. On the 31st of December, 1884, ten trust companies of New York city, possessing a capital of $9,850,000, had individual deposits amounting to $113,540,000; while at the same time forty-four national banks of the same city, with a capital of $46,250,000, had individual deposits of $201,600,000. Deposits in proportion to capital were nearly as three to one in favor of the fiduciary institutions. In these facts lies one explanation of luxuriant growth.

It is only fair, however, to the trust companies to state that some of them—like the Union Trust Company, which, as a rule, voluntarily holds about five million dollars in greenbacks, gold, etc., within its vaults for the protection of depositors—regard investment of their capital in United States bonds at low rates of interest, and the absence of any issue to them of national currency (which the national banks invest as they please), as equalizing offsets to their special advantages. The trust companies are not required to keep a reserve in proportion to their deposits, as are the banks—and very properly so; their deposits are inactive, none being taken except with the understanding that drafts upon them must be infrequent, and a condition that the trust company has a right to demand at least five days notice before payment. All of our trust companies have their deposits well protected. They, not doing a banking business, are enabled to invest their funds in a manner which would be unsafe for a bank to adopt. A bank's deposits being subject to instant call require to be used in such a manner as may be quickly controlled. Trust companies, however, invest in bonds and mortgages, United States and city and State stocks, and have always large balances in banks.

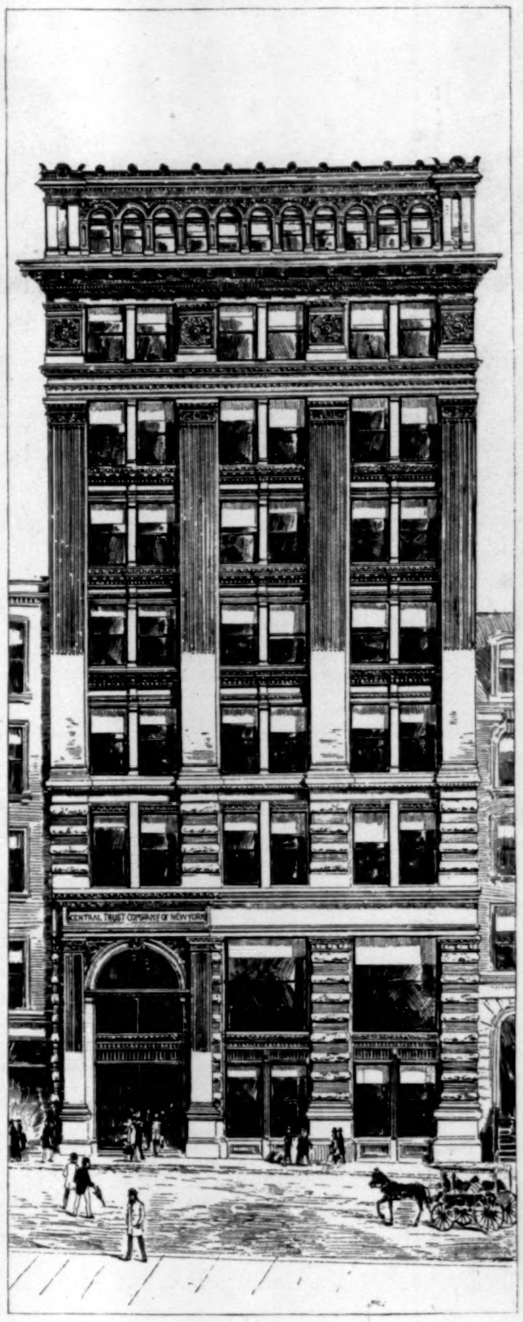
The social value of these institutions is unquestionably great. The general rule is that reliability is proportioned to conservatism. Other things being equal, they are most worthy of confidence whose known ethics are Christian, and whose morals are those of the man that "sweareth to his own hurt, and changeth not." There is no infallible directory to such, any more than there is positive certainty about the events of the future. Probability is the guide of human affairs, and should direct in the choice of agents, even as it guides the most sagacious of agents in the choice of investments. Advice is about the last thing the latter are willing to give. If advice be taken, and events vindicate its wisdom, investors are more than willing to take the credit to themselves; if events turn out adversely, the loser perversely casts all blame upon the unlucky adviser. All that should be asked where guidance is sought is that the best and safest investments be pointed out, and the circle of selection narrowed to the smallest available limit. This done, all is done that is really needful to direct the sound business judgment of applicants.

FREDERIC P. OLCOTT, PRESIDENT OF THE CENTRAL TRUST COMPANY.

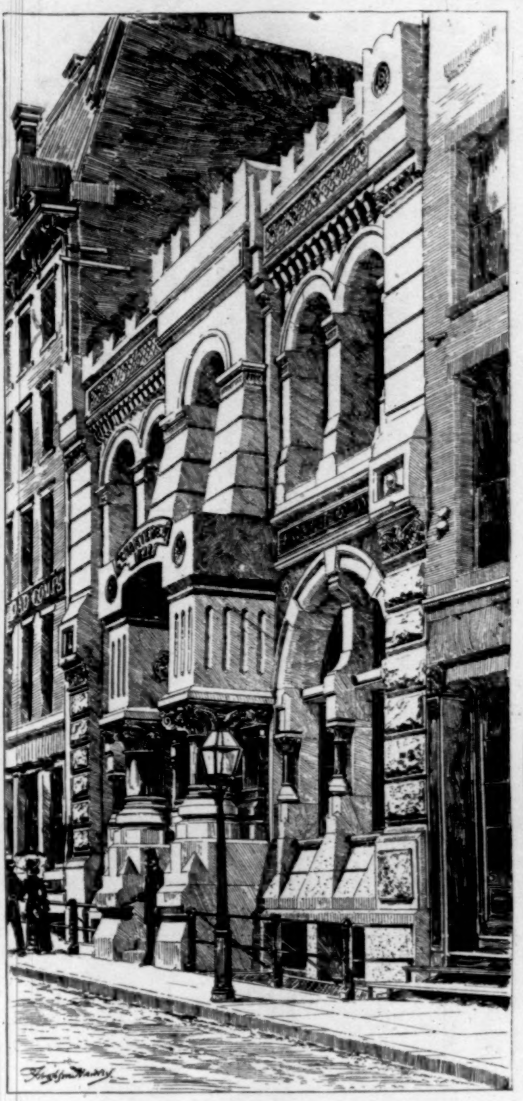
The selection of a first-class company as the custodian of trust funds is a safeguard against the anticipation of income by the beneficiary, and also against the evils of speculative mania. The beneficiary, if able to manipulate securities at pleasure, is tempted by the fluctuations of the market to sell such as have risen to high prices, in order to buy those selling at lower figures, that he may profit by subsequent appreciation. Experience has shown this to be hazardous experimentation, and by no means conducive to sound sleep or to mental health. Experience has also shown that although a *cestui que* trust may mortgage his income, the courts will allow him a suitable maintenance therefrom when the whole case is brought before them. Spendthrift folly is not permitted to wholly frustrate the purpose of the donor.

The misuse of trust funds by individual trustees is one of the glaring abuses of modern civilization. Too often malappropriated to the uses of the custodian, they are either squandered or stolen, the object of the trust defeated, and the beneficiaries left despoiled and desolate. Any really valuable trust company will and does invest such funds, even down to the sum of fifty dollars, either in the name of the *cestui que trust*, or in its own name as trustee for the designated beneficiary. No general blending of values in one security, not even in a United States bond, is permissible by discreet policy. Each should be separate. Otherwise failure in justice and equity may result, and in some instances has ensued. Personal liability for any loss or damage ought to attach to the officer or employé who fails of duty in this particular. Theft, or appropriation of securities to his own uses, is a felony at common law, and punishable by incarceration in State-prison. Such securities, properly marked and segregated, are held by the courts to be sacred to the beneficiaries, and therefore beyond the reach of creditors should the guardian corporation lapse into insolvency.

Charges for the administration of trusts committed by courts of record are limited by law to 5 per cent. on the first thousand dollars, 2½ per cent. on the next $9000, and 1 per cent. on each following thousand. In the case of infants, where income from the estate exceeds expenditure for maintenance and education, the surplus accumulates at a moderate rate of compound interest until the trust expires simultaneously with the minority of the ward. In the matter of private trusts, as where a husband and father provides for the future of wife and children by putting certain amounts into the care of the company, the charges for administration are settled by agreement. Probably 1 per cent. will be charged for the custody of securities, and 1½ per cent. for the collection of avails. Collections may be placed to his credit, so that he may disburse them at will, or to the credit of beneficiaries, and subject to their order, or to that of their guardians. That the ownership and usufruct of their own property may be secured to married women with perfect safety to the family relation, may be inferred from a remark of President JOHN A. STEWART, of the United States Trust Company, that in an experience of thirty-five years he has never known a case of divorce to spring from a wife's separate estate. Neither has President HENRY PARISH, of the New York Life Insurance and Trust Company, met with an instance throughout an experience of fifteen years. Charges for the transfer and registry of stock and bonds, payment of dividends and coupons, foreclosure of railroad or other mortgages, and other services, are necessarily matters of private agreement.


CENTRAL TRUST COMPANY OF NEW YORK

THE CENTRAL TRUST COMPANY.



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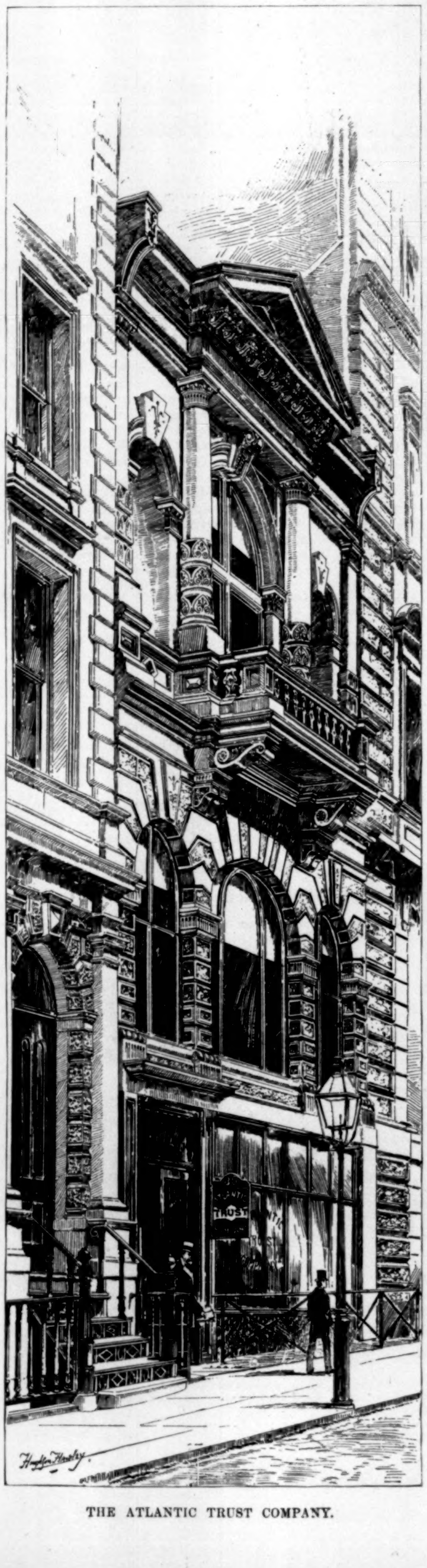

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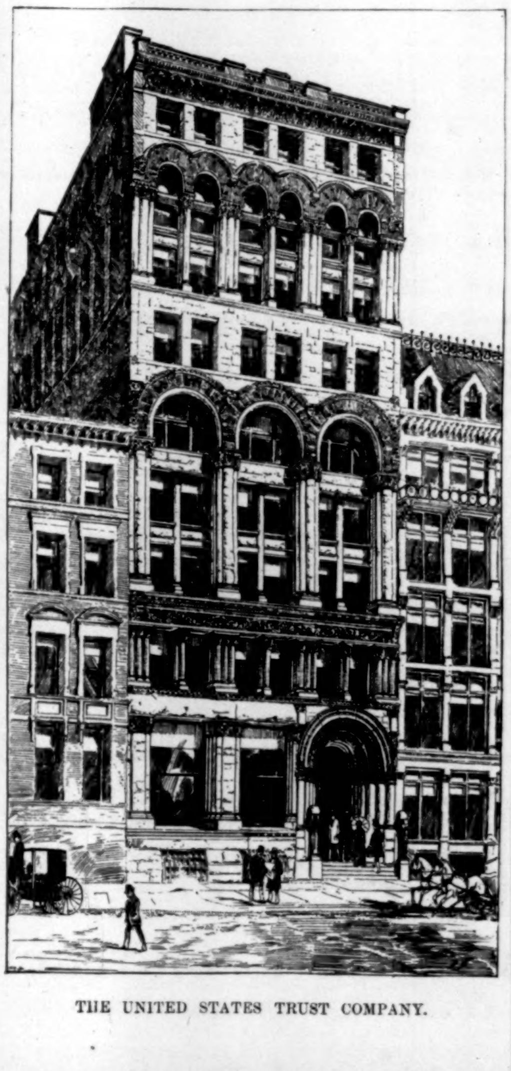

THE UNITED STATES TRUST COMPANY.

The United States, Central, and New York Life Insurance and Trust companies are the largest general buyers of commercial paper. Others purchase on smaller scale. Cultivating this special field of financial energy fosters and facilitates the beneficent work of trade and commerce. Without the aid of the trust companies, the transactions of the Stock, Produce, Petroleum, and other exchanges would be stringently circumscribed, and enterprise miss the stimulus and support essential to the achievement of large success. Whether the stimulus thus imparted be not beyond the strength of many an undertaking to sustain, is a question that must receive affirmative answer. The immense masses of capital under the control of trust corporations not only assist legitimate efforts, but also speculative schemes, to enhance or depress prices without regard to intrinsic values. The latter is inseparable from the former as the penumbra is inseparable from the sun.

Where trust companies have failed, the causes of failure have been more or less obvious. The more closely managers have adhered to their theoretical character, the greater has been their success. Indications of example would be invidious. The enormous sums loaned on collaterals and on personal securities, as stated in the exhibits given, illustrate the general truth. Insolvency has been due, in some cases, to injudicious loans; in others, to wilful impairment of capital, the payment of too high rates of interest on deposits, and too low charges on loans; in yet others, as in that of the National Trust Company, to the vaunted possession of a large number of open and active banking accounts, and the concomitant inability to respond to the drafts of depositors in seasons of panic; but in most instances the cause of failure, in the opinion of experts, is to be found in the inordinate provisions of the charters. In attempting too many things, the defunct corporations did none of them well, and broke down in natural sequence. Possibly disaster might have been averted in special cases by patience and wise management. Thus it is said that assets belonging to the National Trust Company were sold at auction soon after its bankruptcy for $331,000, and that these very assets in less than five years from date of sale had a market value of $1,800,000. Depositors were paid in full, but the forces that wrought the ruin were not so clear as the fact of payment was gratifying to those claimants.

It must be carefully borne in mind that Trust Companies are not banks, and do not do a banking business; they act almost entirely in a fiduciary capacity; their deposits aggregate large figures, but they are trust deposits upon which interest is being paid, and are in contradistinction to the deposits of banks which are made by merchants and business men.

The following exhibit shows that the aggregate capital of the